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ABSTRACT

This report, designed for program initiators such as policymakers and advisory committees, is the second of two publications on school-age child care This document specifically addresses school-age child care policy and focuses attention on various programs offering children a predictable and safe environment of care and informal learning. Sections address (1) what we know about school-age child care, (2) research evidence, (3) the history of school-age child care in America, (4) the special role of the public schools, (5) financing, (6) regulation, and (7) recommendations for policymakers. Appendix A presents school-age child care models of government/parents/community/school partnerships and school-sponsored programs. Appendix B includes an income and expenses comparison of three school-age child care programs. Appendix C provides a tabular comparison of state day care licensing standards and a list of current state day care licensing offices. Appendix D provides a model of legislation for a school-age child care enabling statute. Footnotes, references, and resources are also provided. (BJD)

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School-Age Child Care

A Policy Report

PS 014322

by **Michelle Seligson**
Andrea Genser
Ellen Gannett
Wendy Gray

DECEMBER, 1983

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THE SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE PROJECT

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FOREWORD

The School-Age Child Care Project was initiated in May 1979 to meet the increasing need, expressed by communities throughout the United States, for information and technical assistance regarding the design and implementation of day care programs for the young school-age child before school, after school, and during vacations and holidays when school is not in session but when parents must work.

Funding for the Project in 1983 and 1984 is being provided by the Carnegie Corporation and Ford Foundation. Past funding sources include current funders, as well as the Levi Strauss Foundation, General Mills Foundation, William T. Grant Foundation, and the National Institute of Education.

The Project activities have included research on program and policy issues; technical assistance to parents, community groups, schools, and social service agencies; the design of a demonstration project in eight sites to support the efforts of programs and task forces to start new school-age child care programs, improve the quality of existing programs, and maximize the use of community resources; workshops for public school personnel and training events for school-age child care staff.

In addition, in 1982 the School-Age Child Care Project produced a 486-page book, *School-Age Child Care: An Action Manual*. It was written by Ruth Kramer Baden, Andrea Genser, James A. Levine, and Michelle Seligson and published by Auburn House Publishing Company, Boston, Massachusetts.

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Michelle Seligson
Andrea Genser
Ellen Gannett
Wendy Gray

PREFACE

Many families throughout the state are concerned about lack of supervision for their children after school. The state must assist families as they work in their communities to develop local after-school services. The Council on Children and Families will report to me its recommendations for the most effective uses of state, local, and voluntary resources to achieve greater school-community partnerships for after-school programs.
(Governor Mario M. Cuomo, Message to the Legislature, Albany, New York.)

On January 6, 1983, newly-elected Governor Cuomo felt strongly enough about the issue of school-age child care to include a reference to it in his first address to the New York State Legislature. These days, Governor Cuomo is not the only government official to formally address the issue of school-age child care; policymakers at all levels of government and in the private sector are beginning to hear and to take seriously the concerns of parents, school administrators, and child and family advocates about the lack of care and supervision for the nation's five- to thirteen-year-old children. Stories in the news media daily reveal the risks to young children without care—"latch-key" children. But while public attention to these children has increased, it is important to recognize that school-age child care is inextricably linked with all child care practice and policy in America. Programs for school-age children are as deeply affected by federal fiscal policy as are programs for preschool children. Historical assumptions that child care is the responsibility of the family and not of government or the private sector, and our national reluctance to deal with the changing social and economic conditions which mandate support for families and their child care needs, impact on school-age children and their families as well as younger children and their families.

School-age child care has a policy history. It has been *included* in government policy since federal and state governments assumed a role in funding and regulating child care in the 1930s. Although school-age child care was not always specifically identified, it was allowed funding under both Title IV-A and Title XX. School-age child care has been used by both the Work Incentive Program (WIN) and Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), under "income disregard" policy.

This *Report* specifically addresses school-age child care policy because it has been both a *part of* government policy on child care and also *apart from* it. Child care has typically been defined as care for preschool children; the development of services *and* policies for both infant/toddler care and school-age care have met with less attention and fewer dollars. Thus, the needs for child care at both ends of the continuum have often been ignored.

These needs can no longer be ignored, and it is evident that new interest in the problems that young school-age children and their families face must be addressed by the community at large.

Since 1979 the School-Age Child Care Project has heard from thousands of parents, school administrators, social service agencies, and others concerned about school-age children and the way they spend their time when not in school settings. We have gathered data on the ways communities solve the problem of creating safe and enriching environments for children. The thrust of our work has been to provide information and to develop materials which will be helpful to those who need some guidance about the development of child care programs for school-age children.

Concern about school-age children has prompted a number of innovations at the local level: community groups have started such projects as telephone reassurance hot-lines and survival skills courses for children who are on their own before and after school. But telephone reassurance hot-lines and survival skills courses, valuable as *additions* to child care arrangements (particularly for younger children), do not meet a young child's needs for companionship and for in-person interaction with others. In this *Report* while acknowledging the importance of these services, particularly for older children and their families, we focus our attention on programs, which provide for children a predictable and safe environment of care and informal learning. Also, programs are more likely to fall within the purview of a policymaker than are innovations which are usually not defined as child care and do not have to conform to some type of government regulatory policy.

Who Should Read This Report?

This *Policy Report* is the second of two publications on school-age child care written by the Project staff. The first of these, *School-Age Child Care: An Action Manual*, was addressed to an audience of implementors: parents and others who need hands-on information about the design and operation of programs. The *Policy Report* is addressed to a slightly different audience. It is written for readers who are in positions which allow them to respond to initiatives from others and to act as initiators themselves in the policy area—at the local, state, and/or federal levels. In the field of school-age child care, few policies spring *de novo* into being. They are more likely to be generated by the development of programs, which in turn require the creation of formal policy statements and guidelines. We also intend this *Report* to be useful to those who advise policymakers by providing the sort of information and resources with which decisions can be made effectively. Community advocacy groups, Junior Leagues, Leagues of Women Voters, state or local advisory committees on child care or education fall into this category.

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1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE

What is school-age care? What does it offer to children? What do we know about parental practices and preferences, determining need, determining demand, and current supply?

Children have always participated in a wide range of after-school activities. What has changed is that today, with the entrance into the labor force of vast numbers of mothers of young school-age children, children can no longer depend on an adult being at home when they return from school in the afternoons or, in many cases, during long school vacations and holidays. Thus, parents express their concern at being no longer able to provide supervision and care for their young school-age children. (The "three o'clock syndrome" is a phrase which expresses this concern as it presents an image of working parents around the country telephoning their children after school to make sure they arrived at home.) In addition, increasing numbers of children are telling us that they do not like the feelings of being frightened or lonely when they are by themselves for many hours.

For the purposes of this *Report*, we define school-age child care as any single program or system of programs formally designed and organized to provide supervision and care for children between the ages of five and thirteen during those hours when school is not in session. (See p. 4 for chart showing the times when school-age children may need some form of care.) This includes before school, after school, and during school vacations and holidays. While we recognize that our description of school-age child care also could define family day care (particularly family day care systems) and that family day care is used by a number of school-age children, we have elected not to discuss family day care in full in this *Report*. The legal, financial, and regulatory issues which affect family day care warrant a separate treatment.

Children between the ages of five and ten are the mainstay of most school-age child care programs, although some children in the older range—between eleven and thirteen—may also attend programs with components designed especially for them. "Good" programs combine the best features of child care, education, and recreation. Children who otherwise would spend the valuable after-school hours alone, watching television, or in less than safe circumstances in their neighborhoods get an opportunity to learn new skills, play with their friends—often of different ages—and develop and expand their interests in such special areas as music, art, sports, dramatics, and reading.

A school-age program provides a continuity and dependability that is necessary for all children; it is not interrupted, as a more informal care arrangement may be, if a neighbor, relative, or friend is ill or otherwise unavailable. The program is always there; children know that when school is over for the day they do not have to face a long walk or bus ride home to an empty house—an event in children's lives which leaves many of them anxious and frightened. Many single parents who use school-age programs speak of this aspect of their

children's care as an important benefit for both their children and themselves. Programs help to relieve some of the stress of coping with the multitude of responsibilities confronting single parents.

Many programs offer transportation for children to the program site if it is not located in their school building; in school-based programs, parents know that it is just a short walk from classroom to program space in the very same building to which they bring their children in the morning when school opens.

There is no uniform model: programs can be housed in school buildings, in Ys, in recreation facilities, in day care centers and social or community service facilities. The number of children in a program varies, depending on facilities, licensing requirements, and the program's structure and philosophy. Programs can be administered by a group of parents and community members who establish themselves as incorporators of the organization. Day care centers—both proprietary and not-for-profit—can offer school-age child care either as a separate program or as an addition to existing services. Schools may develop their own programs, often administered by community education departments, and youth-serving agencies such as the Y, Girls' and Boys' Clubs, and Camp Fire can expand their programs to include a school-age component. Many churches offer school-age child care either as a church-sponsored service or by providing operating space to an outside group or agency. In some communities, a municipal recreation department offers school-age care. This is being done, increasingly, in partnership with the schools or with a group or agency in the community.

Some Models of Coordination at State and Local Levels

Some community action groups have made important contributions to the development of school-age child care. By gathering information on already operating programs, they have helped to identify geographic gaps, funding patterns, and rates of use. When matched with needs assessment data, this information provides a planning tool for program development. Community action groups also bring together individuals and organizations with common interests and resources to share. Advocacy groups, local child care resource and referral agencies, schools, parent groups, employers, philanthropic organizations, social service agencies, as well as child care and youth agency programs, can each contribute to the planning process, coordinating their individual resources, providing technical assistance to each other, determining the need for child care, and developing care options.

At the State Level

- In 1978, the California Superintendent of Public Instruction, Wilson Riles, created a special commission on child care to "reexamine the principles and goals of an appropriate child development delivery system for California." The commission found that 372,000 of the 1.6 million children in California between the ages of five and fourteen needed before- and after-school care, but only 106,000 licensed spaces were available. School-age child care was among the top priorities for expansion of services. In the legislation enacted to provide for the expansion of services, it was recognized that SACC is needed by all families, at all income levels, but special acknowledgment was given to the importance of providing services to underserved groups (such as special needs children and children of migrant workers and rural families).[1]
- In Hawaii, in 1977, The Office of Children and Youth, under the auspices of the Governor's Office, brought together groups from the Business and Professional Women's Association, the American Association of University Women, and the Delta Kappa Gamma Society International to discuss projects they might want to adopt. Before- and after-school programs were among the possibilities discussed. The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International volunteered to conduct a survey of after-school activities in 1977-78 under the project directorship of the Office for Children and Youth. The Office for Children and Youth then developed plans and specifications for the project, thus providing a tangible outline for the legislature to review. The legislators were receptive and provided funds to OCY to implement the plan. A research consultant developed an inventory of existing resources and programs and a coordination and technical assistance action plan to respond to community needs. A future phase of the project is to assist those community groups that are ready to develop their own before- and after-school care.[2]

At the County Level

- Between 1980 and 1982, the Tarrant County, Texas, United Way conducted a study of school-

age child care supply and demand in the Arlington/Fort Worth area, bringing together agencies and advocates to work on gaps in service delivery. It was estimated that there were approximately twelve thousand young school-age children in the area studied.

The study goal included a determination of how the "total community [families, social agencies, educational institutions, and the community at large] can be utilized to meet the needs of elementary school children before and after school."

- Children with special needs have access to programs specially designed to meet their needs for before- and after-school care in Fairfax County, Virginia. Children are mainstreamed into the school-age programs administered by the County Office for Children. Those who require it can attend a specially designed program for more severely handicapped children.

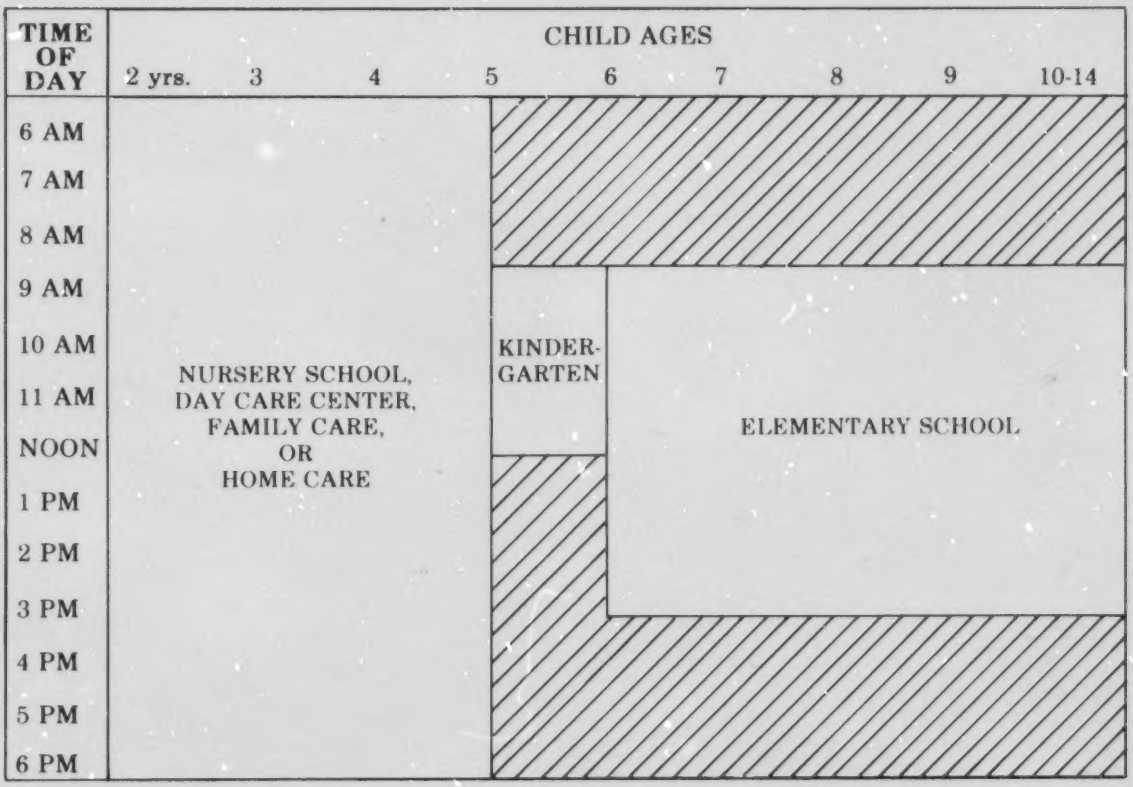
At the City Level

- The mayor of the City of Northampton, Massachusetts, convened a task force of representatives from the Department of Employment Security, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), the Department of Public Welfare, and a local community action agency to address the problem of unemployment. The lack of SACC was identified as a serious barrier and, as a result, the task force started a program which was administered by the community action agency. When financial problems threatened the program's survival, the task force approached a local YMCA, which was already investigating the feasibility of a school-age program, and they worked together to save the SACC program.
- The Matoon Association of Commerce and the Coles County Regional Planning Commission conducted a feasibility study of child care needs in the small, rural city of Matoon, Illinois. The study was funded in part by a Title VII private sector initiative grant (CETA) and it applied to the approximately three thousand nine- to twelve-year-old children in the area.

  Interviews were conducted with government officials, early childhood specialists and employment training personnel. A questionnaire was developed which solicited information from day care centers and family day care homes about their service capacities. On-site visits were also made. Three hundred and eighty-four employees (with 724 children) responded to a questionnaire distributed by employers cooperating in the study. Employers were also surveyed. School-age child care ranked second after full-day care for preschoolers as an important unmet need. The study recommended that additional programs be initiated to provide before-school, after-school, and vacation child care for school-age children.
- In San Francisco, California, the School-Age Project, under sponsorship of the Children's Council of San Francisco, researched the need for school-age care as part of that city's plan to increase school-age child care resources. A private foundation grant was provided to the School-Age Project to be used to develop a resource center, to establish a parent-provider association to advocate for increased school-age care in the city, and to train care providers.

  Two city commissions have also addressed the issue of school-age child care: The Mayor's Office of Child Care, and the Delinquency Prevention Coordination Council. The Mayor's Office of Child Care made school-age child care its number one priority in 1981, successfully worked with the city's school district to reduce rental fees for community-based after-school programs using school district facilities, and received and administered a demonstration grant from a private foundation to provide start-up funds for parent-run programs at four public school sites. The Delinquency Prevention Coordination Council raised private funds to operate supervised summer recreation programs at neighborhood schools throughout the city, and is currently working on plans to construct an adventure playground for the children of San Francisco.
- After several months of negotiation, in the spring of 1982 the Kenmore-Tonawanda School District, just north of Buffalo, New York, cooperated with the Buffalo Child and Family Justice Project, a community task force, in conducting a needs assessment survey. This survey showed substantial need for SACC and parent interest in school-based programs. The Child and Family Justice Committee submitted a proposal to the school board, and received board approval of pilot after-school programs serving children in three elementary schools.
- In Madison, Wisconsin, special needs children are mainstreamed into city-wide programs run by the After-School Day Care Association with financial assistance from United Cerebral Palsy, a private social service agency.

Table 1-1 Times When School-Age Children Need Care*



* Adapted from the Hendon et al., *The After School Day Care Handbook: How to Start an After-School Program for School-Age Children.* Community Coordinated Child Care (4-C) in Dane County, Inc., Madison, Wisconsin. Reprinted by Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services, May, 1977.

What are the Problems in Developing School-age Child Care?

First, as a nation, we are still of several opinions about the need for school-age child care. The school remains, for many parents, the most widely used child care arrangement, at least for that portion of the day when children are attending school. Our rapidly changing social and economic lifestyles have moved faster than our consciousness of—and resultant reactions to—our children's needs for consistent and safe environments of care. We tend to think of young school-age children as an undifferentiated group, but, in reality, children who are between the ages of five and thirteen represent a wide range of developmental stages and needs. Public awareness of the advantages to children and their families of some form of organized activities must be a matter for attention at the policy level *and* in the public consciousness.

Demand and supply data *are* important indicators for policy action. But quantitative proof of parental practices and preferences, reliable information about current supply of school-age services, and the intersection of that supply with demand is elusive. First, parents, in responding to surveys, report that they are caring for their children, even though parents in both single and two-parent households are working full-time in increasing numbers.

Second, need for school-age child care cannot and should not be determined only by looking at demographic data or at the results of demand surveys. Children need to feel safe, to explore their interests and skills, and to be part of a community. As our communities and families become increasingly unable to provide the kinds of environments within which a child can feel both safe and free to explore, then organized services and activities emerge as an important, if not critical, element in a child's development. (See Chapter 2)

Third, as a source of supply for school-age child care, the nation's public schools have enormous potential. Recently, many schools have participated in providing school-age care as partners with local community organizations. Yet, in some areas, schools have been threatened by litigation by those who oppose the use of public schools for day care. The absence of policy and operating guidelines at both state and local levels leaves schools vulnerable to such opposition and also allows an aura of confusion to cloud such issues as liability and the extent of the financial obligation schools incur when they enter into partnership arrangements with day care provider groups. (See Chapter 4)

Fourth, policy neglect of school-age child care is primarily felt by low-income families for whom the cost of care must be at least partially subsidized. Today, federal government funding cuts have severely reduced or eliminated funding for school-age child care programs in a number of states. In addition to government support, other sources of financial support must be tapped and utilized if this population of children is to be served. (See Chapter 5)

Fifth, state and local day care regulation of school-age programs can be ambiguous and inappropriate. Many states do not have regulations for group day care homes which would enable family day care providers to serve more school-age children. Local zoning laws and land use covenants impede child care development by requiring that child care operate only in nonresidential zones (or by banning child care in commercial zones), by stipulating high application and permit fees for rezoning or special use petitions, and by developing their own standards for space and parking. (See Chapter 6)

School-age care makes an unwieldy "fit" within recognized frameworks of child care, education, and recreation. No one discipline "owns" it and, as a result, quality and content are highly variable from program to program and from community to community. Few courses are offered at colleges and universities, and the little money available for state-sponsored training rarely is spent on this field of child care.

The question before policymakers is whether the existing array of services can be made to meet new realities of family life. The challenge for policymakers is to create administrative and funding solutions which will provide for some form of support for the school-age child care needs of low-income families. It is this group of families that depends on initiatives at the federal, state, and local levels to design policy under which existing funding mechanisms will be examined with an eye towards their expansion and better use for school-age child care. Other challenges for policymakers are in the area of enabling policy geared towards the maximal use of already existing resources—public schools, for example—and the examination of regulatory policies which may impede the delivery of school-age care in some communities.

In the absence of conclusive data on the national picture of demand for and supply of school-age child care, we can use several indicators to construct a composite picture. Results from a few national studies on parental preferences and practices and a growing body of data from local studies and surveys of supply and parental demand do provide some part of this picture. Looking at demographic data

also helps: the increase in numbers of mothers of school-age children working outside the home, the rising numbers of children living in single-parent households, estimates of numbers of children caring for themselves on a regular basis—all are suggestive of greater need for services.

Demographics

Today, more mothers of school-age children are working outside the home, and the numbers are predicted to increase by 1990. In 1981, 15 million children between six and thirteen had working mothers. (This represents 66 percent of mothers with children aged six to thirteen.[3]) Another 1.4 million five-year-olds also had mothers in the labor force (48 percent of mothers with five-year-olds[4]). Of the mothers of school-age children who work, 79 percent work full time.[5] When mothers of five-year-olds worked full time, 84 percent of their children were enrolled in some type of preprimary program (nursery school, day care, or kindergarten), according to the 1980 census data. Of this 84 percent, only 36 percent of these five-year-olds were enrolled in an all-day program, so at least 48 percent would need additional care arrangements.[6] It is predicted that by 1990 at least 18 million children between six and thirteen and 1.6 million five-year-olds will have mothers in the labor force;[7,8] a 17 percent increase in the population of five- to nine-year-olds is also anticipated.[9] By that time, 70 to 80 percent of women aged twenty to forty will be part of the labor force.[10]

Children of single parents may be especially in need of before- and after-school care. In 1981, 12.6 million children (20 percent of all children) lived with one parent. Ninety percent of these parents were mothers.[11] Seventy-four percent of single mothers of children six to thirteen are working outside the home. Sixty-nine percent of those mothers work full time.[12] It is estimated that 50 percent of all children can expect to live in one-parent homes for a significant part of their lives.[13]

Low-Income Children

Reduced family resources for child care and restrictive eligibility requirements for government support of child care significantly affect children in poor families. While the need for school-age child care cuts across all income groups, poor children may be at the greatest risk from the lack of supervised and content-rich services. A 1983 report by the United States Commission on Civil Rights states:

> *Today women who maintain their own families are an ever-increasing proportion of the poverty ranks. These women are often the sole providers in their families... Hence, women who head families often have inadequate resources, resources that are strained further by the need for child care.*[14]

The need for child care has not been documented for the school-age children of migrant farm workers, rural poor families, and other groups that are out of the mainstream. Except for some attention by the Federal Interagency School-Age Day Care Task Force of 1972,[15] and a 1978 study for the Children's Bureau,[16] little attention has been directed to the needs of these groups. Children of migrant workers tend to resemble their counterparts in the late nineteenth century: A 1981 *New York Times* article quoted one young school-age child: "No boy scouts, no girl scouts, no summer vacation, just field work in free time."[17] (Some programs do serve this population of children and in some states receive funding under laws governing services for migrant workers. New York State, for example, mandates child care for children of migrant workers under that state's Agriculture and Markets Law. However, such programs report special operating problems: enrollments are never constant, but change daily; hours of operation must fluctuate to accommodate the working hours of parents and older children; and, often, constant lobbying is necessary to maintain even low levels of government support.)

Children With Special Needs

There are an estimated three million, two hundred and thirty-four thousand handicapped school-age children in the United States who are enrolled in some form of special education program in the public schools.[18] While many of these children do receive some form of services from the public schools, as required under PL 94-142 (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act), a 1979 report of the Children's Defense Fund estimates that more than one in five children were not receiving educational services to which they are legally entitled.[19] In 1980, the Bureau for the Education of the Handicapped estimated that some two hundred and thirty thousand three- to five-year-olds were receiving child care through PL 94-142 legislation.[20] For some children with severe handicaps, respite care programs are available in their homes. The lack of national data on the child care needs of handicapped children and their

families and on the availability of services makes it difficult to evaluate the extent to which the needs of this group are being met. To date, only one state has documented this problem. The California Child Development Programs Advisory Committee prepared a report in 1983, *Child Care Needs of Exceptional Children*, describing the need for child care for this population of children.[21]

What We Know about the Numbers of "Latchkey" Children

In the absence of definitive national data on the numbers of school-age children in self- or sibling care, estimates during recent years have ranged from a low of 1.8 million, reported by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1976,[22] to a high of 7 million reported by *Editorial Research Reports* in 1983,[23] a spread of almost 400 percent. The Children's Defense Fund estimated in 1982 that almost half of the 13 million children aged thirteen and under whose mothers are employed full time may go totally without care.[24] Almost 1 million (or 58 percent) of the children aged three to six and 4 million (or 66 percent) of seven- to thirteen-year-olds were reported by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1976 to be cared for *by a full-time working mother*. The highest estimates of numbers of children in self-care include those children whose parents are working full time *and* who report that they are caring for their children. For those who include these figures in estimates of the number of children in self-care, parent care constitutes self-care by default. Lest these estimates appear high, anecdotal reports from teachers and public officials across the nation support our contention that large numbers of school-age children are caring for themselves. A 1981 *U.S. News and World Report* article reported that a sixth-grade teacher in Glen Burnie, Maryland, learned that twenty-four of her twenty-eight pupils (87 percent) were "latchkey" children. Another teacher estimated that 80 percent of the students at an elementary school in Indianapolis, Indiana, were in self- or sibling care after school. Houston, Texas, officials estimated that between 40 to 60 percent of the city's school children routinely cared for themselves.[25]

The *Family Circle* magazine survey to which ten thousand women responded found that the most common child care arrangements reported for six-to thirteen-year-olds was self-care.[26] Twenty-eight percent of the children in the survey were reported to be routinely caring for themselves. Fifteen percent of the parents gave no response to the question on school-age care practices used. The *Family Circle* survey also asked parents about their preferences for child care. The most common response (27 percent) was that parents wanted school-age child care "somewhere else" other than in day care centers or in their or another's home; only 1.7 percent of the parents responded that they preferred self- or sibling care. A more recent survey by *Working Mother* magazine, to which 756 women responded, found that 76 percent of the children were reported to be routinely on their own between 12:00 noon and 6:00 p.m.[27] In 1979, a California study estimated that 23.3 percent of the 1.6 million children between the ages of five and fourteen required before- and after-school care, but only 28.5 percent of the need was being met through licensed programs or family day care.[28] Long and Long's review of the incidence of self- and sibling care cites another California report on sibling care.[29,30] Sixty-six percent of all eleven- to fourteen-year-olds in Oakland were found to be responsible for younger siblings at some point during the week; 10 percent on a daily basis; 23 percent from two to five days a week.

In 1982, a study was conducted by Applied Management Sciences for the Administration for Children, Youth and Families (ACYF) of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. In a random sample of all households with children aged five to fourteen in Virginia and Minnesota, it was found that parent care was cited as the predominant mode of care by full-time working parents. The second most frequently used child care arrangement for children under age fourteen was self- or sibling care.[31] Approximately 11 percent of school-age children from all families were found to be caring for themselves. Consistent with other studies, variations in self- or sibling care were found to be dependent upon the age of the child. Younger children (aged five to eight) were found to be in self- or sibling care considerably less frequently (5 percent in both states) than older children. Among nine- to eleven-year-olds, 7 percent of Virginia children and 11 percent of Minnesota children cared for themselves, while among twelve- to fourteen-year-olds, 22 percent in Virginia and 15 percent in Minnesota were in self-care.* Although few children in this study began self-care before age seven, 40 percent were found to begin self-care between ages eight and ten, and an additional 40 percent between eleven and thirteen. Self-care was found to be most

* In 1983, *Editorial Research Reports*, using data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, estimated that among three- to six-year-old children only four tenths of a percent are reported to be in self-care. The corresponding figure for seven- to thirteen-year-olds is 13.1 percent.[32]

prevalent in suburban settings. Although few socioeconomic differences were found in Minnesota between children in self-care and those in supervised settings, below-poverty-level families in Virginia were more likely to have children caring for themselves.

A recent study by Gray of school-age child care practices of 535 families in nine cities found that 7 percent of all children were reported to be in self-care and an additional 12 percent in sibling care.[33] School was cited as the primary source of child care by 11 percent of the respondents, and parent care accounted for 19 percent of all care arrangements. Gray's findings agree with those of the ACYF study and other studies with regard to the direct relationship between self-care and age. Twelve- to fourteen-year-olds were found to be five times more likely to care for themselves than six- to eight-year-olds and twice as likely as nine- to eleven-year-olds. Contrary to other studies, no significant differences were found by Gray in self-care according to parental work status (full time vs. part time)* or with regard to the number of children in the family.† These families increasingly rely upon children caring for each other.

It is apparent that no definitive answer can be given as to the numbers of children currently in self- or sibling care. Part of the confusion is a direct result of the lack of definition of what ages are to be included in the study of school-age child care. Another problem is the unfortunate practice of reporting child care arrangements of part-time and full-time working parents as a single statistic, and/or reporting multiple sources of care simultaneously.

While national magazine surveys do provide some clues as to the numbers of different types of arrangements parents make for their children's care, the lack of rigorous sample methodology introduces unknown bias in the results. Far more definitive statistics must be made available on which to base future policy and programs. A recent report by the Congressional Budget Office (1983) lends new urgency to the need for more accurate data in this area. According to this report, we can expect an increased demand for nonfamilial care for children between 1980 and 1990 due to an actual increase in the number of children under age ten. A 17 percent increase is expected among five-year-olds and younger; a 10 percent decrease in ten- to eighteen-year olds.* Given the present and projected level of federal support for school-age child care, the CBO report emphasizes that the supply of nonfamilial care available to low-income families will probably not keep pace with demand.[40] This would lead to a shift to greater use of informal modes of care, to lower quality, to less supervision, and, in some instances, to leaving even larger numbers of children unsupervised.

Parental Preferences and Practices

Families care for children in a variety of ways, along a continuum which includes: self-care; care by friends, relatives, or neighbors; organized activities ("defacto" school-age care) such as drop-in recreation programs; the use of libraries, parks and playgrounds; afternoon music, art, or religious lessons, perhaps combined with several afternoons at friends' houses; and formal arrangements—day care centers, family day care, and specialized school-age programs.

Parental choice of child care arrangements is often related to the age of a child and to the presence of other relatives (including siblings) in the household. Many families use multiple arrangements, combining two or more types of care to cover the child's out-of-school hours.

Every solution has virtues and drawbacks. "Informal" solutions work well for those families with relatives nearby or neighbors who are able and willing to contribute time. Some mothers have been able to work part-time, tailoring their work schedules to coincide with their children's after-school hours.

But many families report that they are not particularly satisfied with their care arrangements, particularly when children are caring for themselves. Many families are no longer able to rely on informal resources for care: relatives live far from each other, and the family's traditional child care providers—aunts, grandmothers, teenagers, and neighbors—may themselves be working outside the home.

What do studies on parental practices and preferences say? Nationally, poor data exists on the current demand by parents for school-age child care, on the

* A 1968 study for the Children's Bureau found that parents employed full time were twice as likely to use self-care as those employed part time.[34] The U.S. Bureau of the Census found that 18 percent of children of full-time-employed parents were in self-care, as compared to 7 percent of part-time-employed parents.[35]

† Several studies cited by Gray have found that the use of paid methods of child care decreased with an increase in the number of children in a family.[36,37,38,39]

* This decrease is viewed as particularly significant since it reduces the numbers of older children available to care for younger brothers and sisters.

availability of services, and on the relationship between supply and demand. Major studies on child care conducted during the past ten to fifteen years have not devoted much attention to the question of school-age child care. (An exception is the 1982 *School-Age Day Care Study* by the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (ACYF/DHHS).[41]

- Studies on parental preferences are typically measures only of what is already available, and what parents would use of already available services. Given what exists, parents will make choices then, among *available* options. Some will initiate services, but most will not.
- Studies have often failed to differentiate between methods of care (and preferences for care) selected by parents for different age groups. Many studies lump together data on care for preschool children and young school-age children. Within the group of children classified as school-age, younger and older children are grouped together (six- to fourteen-year-olds) and five-year-old kindergarten children are often left out entirely or are placed in the preschool category.
- Researchers also have had difficulties defining the age of a school-age child: for example, the CBO and the DHHS define school age as six to thirteen, yet the Census Bureau collects data on children from seven to thirteen. And the five-year-old kindergarten population figure is often left out entirely or submerged in data on preschool children.
- Parents also include themselves as the major caregiver of their children, even when they are working full time. Some authors speculate that this occurs because parents are embarrassed to admit that their children care for themselves, lest interviewers regard them as "inadequate" or negligent parents.[42,43,44] Consequently, there may be underreporting of numbers of children in self-care arrangements. In addition, some children may be in the care of "relatives" not much older than themselves—siblings aged eight or nine.
- Some studies combine types of care used by both working and nonworking families. Thus a caregiver used while parent(s) go out in the evening is reported, along with a caregiver used while parents are working. Reporting data in this manner creates confusion rather than clarity.
- School-age child care has not received much attention in major studies on the supply of day care. Between 1970 and 1980, one dozen major studies on day care were conducted by government and private research institutions; although school-age children were included in the survey samples, most studies focused on preschool day care. When school-age child care arrangements *were* included, researchers had problems defining all the possible categories. For example, while in one study the school was regarded as an important source of child care, in another only nursery schools, Head Start, and kindergarten arrangements were included. In still other studies, schools were grouped into a category with other "informal" sources of care, such as babysitting. Still others ignored school arrangements altogether.

A few studies conducted since 1968 do tell us something about parents' stated preferences about school-age child care. The *National Child Care Consumer Study* (1975) asked parents what kind of care they would prefer for their school-age children. The most common response (26 percent) for children ages six to nine was "a day care center." Nearly 75 percent of the parents disagreed with the statement "All the school-age child needs is someone who knows where he is after school until the parent gets home." Nearly three-fourths of the parents agreed that there are not enough places for children to go after school and that every community should have "supervised recreational programs" for after-school hours. When asked about the role of the schools, nearly 60 percent agreed that the schools should provide such activities.[45]

Small-scale local studies. Although reliable data at the national level do not yet exist, local studies do exist, and although they are not generalizable, they have the advantage of presenting a close, in-depth picture of communities of parents and their child care practices and preferences. For example, a recent study of 953 employees from three Washington, D.C., area employers shows the impact of parental responsibilities on workers and gives us a glimpse of what these parents are doing for child care.

In this study, parents' use of child care was determined by the number of children and the presence of people in the household who could serve as a child care resource; employees who were parents without other adults in the household tended to have more absenteeism related to child care responsibilities. Further, employed parents in this study frequently used self-care for their children; although most of these children were aged twelve to fourteen, 19 percent of the children were

nine to eleven, and 5 percent were eight years old or younger. The study reports that a third of the parents said they had mixed feelings about using self-care, and that many employees experienced some difficulty when they tried to find out-of-home child care.[46]

Long and Long (1983) found that 33 percent of elementary school children in Washington, D.C., reported regular self-care; the corresponding figures in the more affluent suburbs of Washington were 11 to 12 percent. Long and Long also report on a 1982 study by Hughes in Maricopa, Arizona. Thirty-one percent of the families with children aged six to eleven reported self-care. Long and Long observe that where the percentage of families with a single working parent is high, even the estimate of one-third of children aged thirteen and under in self- or sibling care may be too low.[47]

According to a study by the Metropolitan Kansas City Working Parent Project, of 50,000 working-parent households, approximately 28 percent of the households' school-age children ages five through twelve (average age is ten) stay alone on a regular basis. Nineteen percent of the households reported that after-school care is provided by in-home sitters, 80 percent of whom are siblings.[48]

Children in poor families without care were described in a recent New York City study. In this study of 211 families whose publicly subsidized day care was terminated because of recent cutbacks in eligibility for social services block grant funds, the authors estimate that at least 19 percent of the children were regularly left without supervision during all or part of their parents' work day. "Despite assertions that their children were old enough and responsible enough, probing revealed that most parents experienced great ambivalence, concern, and dissatisfaction, but felt they had no other choice... Close to one-fifth of the parents left their children unsupervised for between four and eight hours a day. One-fourth of the children had been left alone beginning at age seven or younger. By the time they were twelve, 95 percent stayed by themselves."[49]

Measuring Local Needs; Needs Assessments. When asked about their needs and preferences for their young school-agers, many parents report that they not only would like child care options but also that they would use them if they were available. School districts, Leagues of Women Voters, Junior Leagues, parent teacher organizations, and business associations are among the groups that have designed and administered parent needs surveys as planning tools for the development of school-age child care services. For example, a survey sponsored by the Community Education Department in the Rochester, Minnesota, elementary schools found that of 1,672 parents of children in grades kindergarten to six who responded to the survey on school-age child care needs, 48 percent said they would like an after-school program. Eleven percent of these parents also indicated a need for before-school assistance. Even greater levels of response were obtained from a Greenburgh, New York, League of Women Voters school-age child care study: 80 percent of the respondents said they would make use of an after-school program were one available.

These are not isolated survey results. Many communities are currently exploring needs in a similar fashion. Need surveys offer no guarantee of maximum use of programs and do not give a basis for projections of the number that would use the program. However, need surveys do offer documentation on which to base development decisions.

Child Care Information and Referral Data. Parents within reach of child care information and referral agencies are seeking child care options for their school-age children. The Cambridge, Massachusetts, Child Care Resource Center reports that for the months of June-August, 1982, 30 percent of their incoming calls for information and referral were for school-age child care — the largest percentage of all calls. Although these calls were recorded during the summer months immediately preceding the beginning of school, calls for school-age care remained at fairly high levels during the following three-month period: 20 percent of all calls were for school-age care. This recent data is consistent with a small survey of six information and referral agencies conducted by the School-Age Child Care Project in 1980. The percentage of requests for school-age care ranged from 12 to 28 percent over a period of one year (September 1979-September 1980). The five agencies surveyed represented areas in the states of California, Minnesota, New Mexico, Connecticut, Oregon, and Massachusetts.

Who's Providing School-Age Care Today?

Today, no one model dominates the supply of school-age child care. However, states have the most comprehensive information on the supply of school-age programs. Most states license school-age child care, either as part of existing regulations for day care centers or under separately legislated regulations for school-age programs. In spite of some problems with the definition of what constitutes a school-age child care program — some

states and local licensing regulations may use such terms as "day camp" to define school-age child care programs; public school-run programs and programs run by municipal agencies are usually exempt from licensing requirements—licensing lists do provide a handle on existing supply at the local level.

Programs are organized and administered by a variety of groups, agencies, and organizations. Nor are programs the sole option. In Riverside, California, a family day care network is administered by the county public schools; in Fairfax County, Virginia, the County Office for Children recently began a pilot "check-in" family day care project for older children; and in Acton, Massachusetts, children "too old" for day care can sign up for The Connection, a series of varied activities which take place in the community (the "business connection," the "creative connection," the "personal connection," and the "sport connection") on a regular schedule conforming to the child's after-school hours and parents' needs for child care.

Between 1979 and 1980, the School-Age Child Care Project identified and gathered information about school-age child care programs throughout the United States. In a national telephone survey of thirty-three states and the District of Columbia, the staff identified 171 programs which included a variety of SACC models—with a high proportion of programs having public school involvement. In addition, intensive telephone interviews were conducted with the staffs of 122 programs, and field visits were made to more than 25 programs in 16 states. Since 1979, the project has been in contact with individuals, groups, and organizations in all fifty states.

Our findings reinforced those of the earlier study conducted by the federal government's interagency School-Age Day Care Task Force:

- there was increased interest on the part of parents, due to a growing need to locate accessible, affordable, and reliable child care;
- a wide range of groups and organizations was involved in providing services;
- "partnerships" or collaborations of some type were being forged between social service organizations, day care and community-based agencies, groups of parents, and public schools;
- the resources of community youth-serving agencies, such as the Y, Boys' and Girls' Clubs, etc., were beginning to be used in new ways to meet the growing need for formal child care for school-age children.

We also found that public school-based programs were developing rapidly. We attribute this to the increased interest of parents in locating accessible child care for their school-agers; in benefits to the schools in offering some form of support for school-age programs (increased enrollment, utilization of under-used facilities); and in the increasing financial constraints on community agencies (particularly in transportation costs) which make a school-agency partnership desirable.

Community Organizations and Parent Groups. One of the most interesting developments in the delivery of school-age child care is the entrance of community and parent groups into the "service" arena. Perhaps because they lack other options or because they prefer it, these groups (including members of Leagues of Women Voters, parent teacher organizations, and parents in local elementary schools who affiliate for the express purpose of starting a program) often take the lead in initiating programs and, in some cases, also manage them. Typically, such organizations choose to locate a program in a school and must take a major role in negotiating with school officials the use of school space and other legal and administrative details.

Diversity in the design and administration of school-age child care programs is the greatest strength of such groups. Community resources can be explored for expansion potential: unused schools, portable classrooms, or classroom space can be tapped for use; municipal buildings near parks and playgrounds can be used; churches and other religious institutions can donate the use of their buildings; and facilities can be donated by local businesses.

Developing an action plan provides an opportunity for a wide range of policymakers—state and local officials; administrators, employers, and representatives of foundations and charitable organizations—to collaborate. Often school-age programs evolve from a meeting of a community task force which wants to "do something" about the problems faced by young children who are without care and supervision before and after school and during school vacations and holidays when their parents must work.

Family Day Care. In the *National Day Care Home Study* (1981), it was reported that for school-age children "most family day care is provided in informal, unregulated settings and that proportionally few school-age children are found in regulated or sponsored care." In this study, regulated care, unregulated care, and care by relatives were combined, so it is difficult to assess

both the amount of family day care nationally and the extent to which school-age children are served in family day care settings. However, study researchers speculated that the unequal distribution of school-age care "probably" reflects unmet demand for regulated and sponsored care for children in this age group, and may occur because reimbursement rates are lower for providers of SACC than for providers of preschool care.[50]

Youth-Serving Agencies. In recent years, organizations such as the Y, Boys' and Girls' Clubs, and Camp Fire have begun to offer more school-age child care in addition to their existing activities. This has taken place in response to the problem of many children with no place to go on a regular basis after school, in response to parental requests, and in order to use the organization's own existing services. The national office of the YMCA reports that five to six hundred of its affiliate programs are supplying school-age care in over one thousand sites throughout the country. The YMCA estimates that one-fourth of a million children are being served by these programs.[51] The national office of the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) reports that in 1982 an estimated forty-five formally organized school-age child care programs were provided, out of a total of four hundred YWCA programs.[52] Of 320 Camp Fire councils nationwide, twenty-seven were providing after-school programs or drop-in centers in 1981.[53] Other youth-serving agencies (Boys' and Girls' Clubs, settlement houses, centers operated by the Salvation Army) also provide SACC or drop-in services, along with regularly scheduled activities. (The organizational structure of many of these organizations provides for the autonomy of affiliate groups; data-gathering does not always reveal the activities of member groups in full detail, so numbers in many cases may not reflect actual practice.) Several of these organizations—Boys' Clubs, Salvation Army, United Neighborhood Centers (which operate settlement houses)—focus their efforts in urban and inner-city locations. Both the YMCA and Camp Fire have recently written resource and training manuals for affiliated groups that wish to develop more formally organized school-age child care programs.

In addition, some national organizations are sponsoring or developing materials which teach "survival skills" to children who care for themselves before and after school. This includes the Boy Scouts of America's "Prepared for Today," Camp Fire's "I Can Do It," and the "I'm In Charge" curriculum of The National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse. Similar materials have been designed by local groups such as "On My Own," prepared by the Michigan Pine & Dunes Girl Scout Council in Muskegon, Michigan.

Public Schools. Although many schools are currently providing space for community- or center-run programs and some schools are administering their own programs, no national data exist on the extent to which schools are involved. There is no debate, however, about the increased interest schools have shown in school-age child care during the past few years. A 1970 survey of school superintendents showed that only 8 percent of the 1,390 superintendents who responded identified their school systems as providing some form of school-age or preschool day care services.[54] Today, that picture is quite different, as mayors, city managers, school officials, and administrators begin to select different policy approaches to managing unused or underused school facilities.

Private Schools. There are indications that, increasingly, private schools are providing after-school child care services for their elementary school children. In 1983, the National Association of Independent Schools conducted an informal telephone survey of private schools in seven cities. This survey found high levels of involvement in school-age care in all the cities surveyed: one-third of the schools surveyed already had operating programs and another one-third was planning to provide them.[55] As reported in a 1982 publication, interviews with personnel in ten independent schools with extended day programs confirm this trend. Private schools report distinct benefits to both the schools and the families served by these extended day programs: "Headmasters were pleased and could trace enrollment growth to the extended service. One school's internal survey showed that many parents would not have enrolled youngsters had there not been an extended day offering. Parents were relieved to have found child care and experiential programs rather than the...child storage option."[56]

Employer-Supported Child Care. Across the country, employers are becoming involved in child care, although the highest level of involvement is still focused on preschool children. A survey conducted by the National Employer-Supported Child Care Project (NESCC) in 1982 identified approximately 415 employers who either ran programs, supported child care programs in the community, reimbursed employees' child care expenses, provided information and referral programs, sponsored family day

care homes, or had educational programs for parents.

The survey reported that 85 of the companies that have their own child care centers (40 percent of a total of 211 companies with centers) reported that they care for school-age children aged six and over. About as many SACC programs were located at the worksite as were not; roughly two-thirds of the programs were open year round, another third were open only during the summer. Most of these programs served small numbers of children.[57] So, although these companies are in the advance guard in offering SACC, it is not a widespread practice.

At this writing, a number of companies (close to 1,000, in some estimates) are conducting feasibility studies on the possibility of providing child care in one form or another.[58] Informal observations by managers and results from company-wide needs assessments indicate that more concern is being shown for needs of school-age children. Employers in worksites across the country are becoming sensitive to the "three o'clock syndrome."

Church-Supported School-Age Child Care. In 1982 the National Council of Churches conducted a study of its member churches and found that of the 27,000 churches which responded to the survey questionnaire, 8,700 of them were operating 14,589 child care programs. On a follow-up questionnaire sent to 3,362 churches, 28 percent responded that they were providing before- or after-school care; 89 percent offered care to kindergarteners; 72 percent to grades 1-3; and 36 percent to grades 4-6. Of the churches that provide care to school-age children, 89 percent do so on a daily basis; 62 percent on holidays and school vacations; and 70 percent during the summer vacation. These figures represent almost one-third of the total of 3,362 churches which provide some form of child care.[59]

Day Care Centers. No national day care supply study has been conducted since 1977, when the National Day Care Supply Study conducted by Abt Associates estimated that there were 18,300 day care centers in America serving approximately 900,000 children. Slightly more than one-third of that enrollment was comprised of children five and older, with five-year-olds representing 21 percent of the total enrollment and children aged six and older representing 14 percent. A substudy of this national sample found that about four-fifths of the kindergarten-age children were enrolled in these centers full time, and one-fifth on a part-time basis. This suggests that many parents were using day care centers as a full-day alternative to the half-day of public kindergarten or the use of part-day care in centers for kindergarten children. When their children entered the first grade, however, parents did not very often rely on day care centers as an adjunct to the school day. (No more than 6 percent of children in center enrollment were there for after-school care.[60])

Along with nonprofit day care centers which may offer school-age care to their own "graduates" or to siblings of preschool children already in attendance, proprietary child care centers are also involved in providing SACC. This category includes the one-site "Mom and Pop" center or nursery school, and large, corporate, child care chains. In February 1983, the School-Age Child Care Project conducted a small telephone survey of four child-care companies of diverse size and in various geographic locations to determine the extent of their involvement in school-age child care. One company, the nation's largest for-profit chain, reported that approximately 30 percent of their enrollment was school-age children; another reported that 20 percent of the children they served were school-agers. (The other two served school-age children in somewhat smaller percentages.) One company stated that the need for school-age care figures importantly in the company's decision to start a new center. Most companies surveyed reported that school-age enrollments were growing every year.[61]

Programs for Children with Special Needs. Ninety-five of the 122 programs interviewed by the SACC Project said they do admit children with handicaps, but most do so on an occasional basis only. Twenty programs said they admit "many" special needs children, but they seem to admit only those children with moderate special needs—learning-disabled children or children with slight physical disabilities. The lack of services for handicapped children stems from several causes. There is no funding mechanism for school-age child care programs that serve special needs children at present. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142) does include language that would suggest that child care might be considered an "extracurricular" service to which a child is entitled. However, funds which might be used for "beefing up" staffing or for special staff training to better serve handicapped children are used by school districts for regular education programs or specialized services (health and rehabilitation). Understandably, funding constraints mandate that these funds be spent for education. But handicapped children stand to gain much from socialization and learning experiences in informal settings, alongside other children. And

these children, by law, have the right to equal access. At this time, few school districts or systems allocate funds for handicapped children for the after-school-hours services to which other children are granted access. Parents of handicapped children are often too busy fighting for the educational programs their children must have to lobby for changes in this system. While in some states centers can receive a license to serve children with special needs, without some additional income with which to provide adequate services, most programs will be unable to serve this population well.

2 WHAT DOES THE RESEARCH SAY?

The Effects of Self-Care on Children

While numerous studies have been conducted between 1950 and 1980 on the effects of maternal employment among two-parent and single-parent families on children's cognitive and psychosocial development, the majority of these studies suffer from a serious omission in their conceptual framework. Few studies, including the most recent by the U.S. Department of Education in 1983, have considered the direct or indirect effects of the child care arrangements of working parents.[1] Indeed, much of this research appears to assume that continuous, alternative sources of child care are available and used. Whether this omission is the result of oversight or the lack of an adequate national data base on school-age child care arrangements, it renders most current research inadequate for answering questions on the effects of self-care on children's outcomes. While research indicates positive, long-term social and economic benefits to young children from preschool education,* no parallel studies have been designed to discover if participation in some type of organized school-age activity program can act as a preventative strategy against costs associated with rising rates of juvenile crime, pregnancy among young adolescents, and other conditions that require intervention. Nor has a national agenda been developed to set goals for school-age programs in terms of children's developmental needs.

The history of school-age child care indicates that the problem of latchkey children has been a long-standing concern among both the public and professionals in this country. Yet, despite this concern and the rapid social change which has occurred over the past two decades, both the social response to the care of school-age children and research on the consequences of different forms of care has lagged far behind. Growth in the numbers of school-age children caring for themselves—in every economic bracket—has lent a new saliency to the need for research on both the short- and long-term effects of self-care. What little research has been published over the last ten to fifteen years in this area has been either cross-sectional or based on local studies which are not generalizable. The primary focus has been on measuring the effects of self-care on cognitive functioning and social adjustment; children's fears; play and peer relationships; and risk for abuse and accidents. Rarely has research in this area taken into account the cumulative effects of self-care. As the following review indicates, the research findings currently available are far from definitive. Rather, they serve to underscore the urgent need for carefully conducted large scale longitudinal studies to help determine both policy and programs for school-age children.

* Findings from the High/Scope Foundation's Perry Preschool Study demonstrate that preschool prevents problems and increases the effectiveness and efficiency of the social investment already made in schooling.[2]

Cognitive and Social Adjustment

In 1944, Zucker observed that whether it was harmful for a mother to work depended on the arrangements she made for her children.[4] Several more recent studies have looked at the relationship between self-care, academic achievement, and social adjustment. In the early 1970s, Woods studied a group of 108 low-income, fifth-grade, black children from Philadelphia.[4] The group was evenly divided between children who reported little or no supervision while their mothers worked and those who had continuous care. Woods's sample contained significantly more unsupervised girls than boys. She found significant differences between the two groups of girls in academic achievement and school relationships. Unsupervised girls showed marked deficits in cognitive functioning, personal and social adjustment, and a more depressed self-concept. Children who reported mature substitute supervision were found to be more self-reliant than those reporting self-care. Woods's study also revealed that among low-income children the mother's attitude towards her work and child care roles and the quality of the mother/child relationship and the substitute care arrangements she made were positively related to the child's scholastic achievement, I.Q., and personality adjustment.

Gold and Andres in 1978 studied 223 ten-year-old Canadian children from intact two-parent families.[5] Fifty-seven percent (N=128) of the mothers in this sample worked. An unusually low percentage (16 percent) of these children were unsupervised. Eighty percent of the unsupervised group were boys. Although the results of this study did not reach significance, Gold and Andres found that unsupervised boys scored consistently lower on all adjustment and academic achievement scores, and these differences held across social classes. Their findings were remarkably similar to those of Woods.

Galambos and Garbarino's 1982 study of a group of fifth- and seventh-grade students in a rural setting found no effects on academic achievement between children by maternal employment or supervision.[6]

In one of the few studies of children who received center-based after-school care, Entwisle found that program children (N=40) improved their grades in reading and arithmetic over a six-month period significantly more than a matched comparison group (N=15) not receiving program services.[7] Boys improved more than girls, although girls tended to receive better grades than boys in both arithmetic and conduct. An unexpected finding was that the improvement of the older boys (grades four to six) was equal to or greater than that of the younger boys (grades one to three). It should be noted that the program was not a tutorial or remedial program, but provided primarily recreational and cultural activities. The gains made by these Baltimore children were considered particularly impressive since disadvantaged children have been found to enter school at lower levels of cognitive development than more advantaged children and to fall further behind over the course of their educational careers.

The Baltimore study also found that program attendance among girls was positively associated with an improved attitude toward school; among boys, toward education in general. Program attendance among older boys was also associated with improved marks in conduct. One explanation offered for the improvement in attitude and conduct among boys was the positive role model provided by male program staff.

The program was also seen to enhance self-esteem among both boys and girls. Older program girls showed significant improvement in their attitudes toward authority, suggesting that children receiving good developmental care would be less likely to engage in delinquent activity. The author notes that although the findings are generally positive, they should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size and the lack of an adequate comparison group for the older children.

A more recent study of a before- and after-school day care program in a public elementary school in Raleigh, North Carolina, corroborates the Baltimore findings.[8] The program, which provides curriculum enrichment activities as well as cultural and recreational activities, has not only enjoyed positive evaluations by the parents of children who attended the program but has been able to also demonstrate its effectiveness in raising the academic achievement levels of program participants. The average scores on statewide math and reading tests of program participants were found to be significantly higher than those of a matched group of nonparticipating peers over several consecutive academic years, and the gap between these two groups widened over time.

Children's Fears

Children who routinely care for themselves do appear to be more fearful. Zill *et al.* report on a 1977 sample of 2,258 children, aged seven to eleven, and 1,748 parents, who were part of the National Survey of Children conducted by Temple University in

1976.[9]* When questioned whether they were worried when they had to stay home without an adult, 32 percent of the boys and 41 percent of the girls replied affirmatively. Fifteen percent of the sample children reported that they worried a lot, and 13 percent indicated that they were frequently scared. Children who were considered heavy television watchers (over four hours on an average weekday) showed higher levels of fear.

Two-thirds of the children were afraid of intruders when they were home alone and over 30 percent of the girls and 20 percent of the boys reported that they were afraid to go outside to play. The majority of children who reported being afraid to play outside had been bothered by other children and adults. More than 40 percent reported being bothered by older children, and 15 percent had been bothered by an adult. Although no significant differences by age were found in the study, differences by sex were noticeable. Fear also appeared to be greater among low-income children, particularly among children of Hispanic origin.

Galambos and Garbarino's 1982 study of fifth- and seventh-grade children in a rural setting found that maternal employment status or supervision had no effect on children's fears of going outdoors alone.[10] The authors suggest that in the relative safety of the rural environment, children are permitted greater freedom, and this, in turn, leads to better adjustment. This finding is supported by Long and Long's study of suburban latchkey children.[11] Elevated fear levels appear less frequent in affluent suburban settings. According to the authors, the perceived safety of the neighborhood may play a role in determining the impact of the latchkey experience.

A 1981 study by Long and Long of eighty-five black parochial school children (grades one to six) in Washington, D.C., equally divided by sex, showed elevated levels of fear among latchkey children as compared with children who received continuous adult supervision while their parent(s) worked.[12]† Fifty-two children in this study were latchkey children;‡ thirty-two children received continuous supervision. The number of children in single parent households was comparable to national statistics. One out of three children who cared for themselves and one out of five children cared for by siblings expressed high levels of fear. None of the children in adult care were found in this group. Children's self-ratings were confirmed by the interviewers who reported that 38 percent of those home alone were in the high fear group, as compared with 13 percent of those in sibling care. No differences by sex were found.

As was found in the National Survey of Children, the most prevalent fear was of intruders.[13] One-third of self-care children and one-fifth of those in sibling care reported being afraid that someone might break into the house. Recurring nightmares also appeared prevalent among latchkey children. Forty percent of the children who routinely cared for themselves and 26 percent of the sibling group reported being troubled by bad dreams. In contrast, fewer than one in three children with adult supervision expressed even moderate fear and/or indicated that they had frightening dreams, and this occurred for about half of these children only when they were left alone.

Children coped with their fears in several ways: by hiding; by turning the TV on loud to distract themselves, drown out frightening noises, or warn intruders that someone was at home; by calling their parents frequently and/or turning on all the lights. Still others avoided going home and hung around school until late in the day.

Long and Long observed that children develop withdrawal strategies when their fears are not put to rest by adult reassurance. The closeness of the relationship between parents and children appeared to modify the negative aspects of the latchkey experience, but close relationships between siblings do not mitigate negative effects. Former latchkey children varied in their reaction to the stress they had experienced in caring for themselves. Negative reaction to unresolved stress was found to be associated with: age at which self-care began (below age eight); length of time in self-care (five to six hours per day); and too much responsibility at too young an age.[14]

James Garbarino writes that, from a developmental perspective:

> *It is the premature granting of responsibility, particularly when it occurs in a negative emotional climate, that seems to be damaging... thus we know that some kids will thrive on the opportunity of being a latchkey child; others will just manage to cope. Still others will be at risk, and still others will be harmed.*[15]

* Although the National Survey of Children was not specifically designed to evaluate the effects of child care arrangements of working parents, the study is based on a national probability sample, and the findings are generalizable to the larger school-age population.

† Although the authors did not consider the study sample representative, it was felt to be indicative of the problems faced by all latchkey children.

‡ Twenty-eight percent of the latchkey children also had a sibling between the ages of nine and twelve.

Elkind concurs with these observations.[16] Growing up too quickly—being given responsibility prematurely—can produce undue stress. The child's characteristic response to this stress is anxiety that is not attached to any specific fear. One of the ways in which the child copes is to attempt to overstructure the environment, which, in turn, can lead to lowered academic achievement and an increased chance of social and emotional problems in later life. Elkind observes that in the past growing up too quickly was characteristic of low-income children, who became independent early in single-parent families or in families where both parents worked. The premature granting of responsibility is now common in all social classes.

Restrictions on Outdoor Play and Peer Relationships

Studies indicate that self-care seriously curtails a child's ability to engage in outdoor play and in socializing play with peers. This applies particularly to city children. Several researchers suggest that these children who care for themselves probably suffer some social deficits as a result.

Long and Long report that, in an urban sample, 45 percent of those who cared for themselves and 33 percent in sibling care were not permitted to play outside while their parents were not at home.[17] Boys were treated differently from girls. Thirty percent of the boys in self-care and 50 percent of the girls were restricted to the home. Among children in sibling care, 40 percent of the boys and 30 percent of the girls had to stay inside. Age was clearly a factor. All of the second graders were housebound, compared with 25 percent of the sixth graders. All fifth- and sixth-grade boys were permitted to play outside. Among those children who were permitted outdoor play, the majority were limited to their yards or the immediate neighborhood.

Social contacts with friends in the home were also seriously constrained. Eighty percent of those who were at home alone—and 60 percent of boys and 30 percent of girls in sibling care—were not permitted to have friends visit when their parents were away. Overall, 40 percent of the self-care children in this study were completely isolated—they were neither permitted to play outdoors nor to socialize with friends. Those in sibling care fared only slightly better. One-third were confined indoors with only their siblings for playmates. These figures stand in sharp contrast to the restrictions imposed on children who had adult supervision. Ninety percent of adult-supervised children had unrestricted play and friendships.

The study commissioned in 1982 by the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF) of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services supports the Longs' findings.[18] The study addressed school-age child care practices of a representative sample of families in Virginia and Minnesota. Eighty-nine percent of the families surveyed in Virginia and 95 percent of the Minnesota families had special instructions for the time their school-age children spent without adult supervision. Most frequently mentioned ground rules/restrictions in both states included: not letting anyone in while alone; not having friends in; and not playing outside of the yard or other restricted area.

In view of these findings, it is not surprising that the number one complaint of children in self-care and sibling care is loneliness and boredom. Zill *et al.* found that 7 percent of the children in his sample were lonely a lot of the time.[19] This complaint was particularly prevalent among inner-city black children. Seven percent of the children also reported that they were bored much of the time.

Restricted play and fear are both closely related in these studies to the environment in which the child lives and the level of supervision he or she receives. Children in the city, irrespective of social class, appear to experience the most restricted play and the greatest levels of fear. (The negative aspects of an urban environment, in terms of both play and fear, appear to be mitigated to a large extent by consistent adult supervision.) In contrast, children in self-care in the suburbs experience much more relaxed restrictions,[20] and those in rural settings appear to be even more unrestricted.[21]

Ruderman, writing about these house-bound children in 1968, observed:

> *... he is locked in, instructed not to go out or open the door. These precautions in themselves suggest a dangerous environment and may have the effect of intensifying the child's sense of aloneness or fearfulness in an overwhelming, threatening world.*[22]

Risks

Children in self-care appear to be at risk from a variety of sources. Long and Long report that among former latchkey children more than half recall having to deal with a serious emergency while they were unattended.[23] The average age when they began self-care was nine. Garbarino observed that unsupervised children are more likely to be victims of accidents, which are a leading cause of death among children.[24] In 1981, *U.S. News and World Report* stated that one in six calls received by

the Newark, New Jersey, fire department involved a child or children alone in the household.[25] Poison control centers report a similar pattern.

The most frequently mentioned concern of parents with children in self- or sibling care in the ACYF study was fear of accidents.[26] In Virginia, over one-third (37 percent) of parents responding worried about accidents; 9 percent also reported accidents as a problem. Almost twice as many Minnesota families (63 percent) reported similar concerns, while the children of 8 percent of the parents had experienced accidents.

Children in the care of siblings frequently complain of excessive fighting and arguing.[27] Zill *et al.* reported that 40 percent of his sample had been bothered by older children and 13 percent by adults.[28] One-third of these children were threatened by beatings; 13 percent were actually beaten. Rural children in this study appeared to fare somewhat better than urban children, but few differences were found between urban and suburban environments. Differences were noted, however, among care arrangements. Five percent of the children in this study could play outside only if an adult was watching; this was true for 15 percent of the black children.

Finkelhor's study of sexual victimization cites many examples among unsupervised children.[29] It is difficult to know how many children are abused by siblings and how many by adults, since both are categorized by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services as mother substitutes. A 1981 DHHS report of children abused by mother substitutes estimates that 46 percent are exposed to sexual abuse, 72 percent to physical abuse, and 90 percent to other maltreatment.[30]

The kinds and quantities of risks faced by children in self-care remains largely unknown. Garbarino suggests that several risks are involved. Children routinely left in self-care will, according to Garbarino:

> *feel badly (e.g., rejected and alienated);*
> *act badly (e.g., delinquency and vandalism);*
> *develop badly (e.g., academic failure);*
> *and be treated badly (e.g., accidents and sexual victimization).*[31]

The *1981 FBI Uniform Crime Reports for the United States* reported that more than twenty-five thousand children *under the age of ten* were arrested for participation in serious crimes, including theft, vandalism, and crimes of violence.[32] Reports such as these do not document the relationship between the incidence of juvenile arrests and a lack of supervision, but it is hard to deny the logic of such a relationship.

Discussion

Large and increasing numbers of children are being left alone while their parents work. Whether the lack of continuous supervision creates a problem is a question to which research has not provided a definitive answer. However, a growing body of evidence appears to indicate that unsupervised school-aged children are at risk to a greater or lesser extent, depending on their care arrangements and the context in which these arrangements exist.[33]

The research findings appear to support the idea that self-care for the most vulnerable children (low-income, minority, urban) has negative effects on adjustment, school achievement, and self-image. In addition to loneliness and boredom, many children experience fear, and some appear to be at risk for accidents and abuse by other children and adults. At best, many of these latchkey children experience severely constrained play and social experiences during the time they are out of school. Safe neighborhoods and close relationships with parents may mitigate some of the negative effects of self-care.

Given the increasing numbers of children who care for themselves, more sophisticated research is needed to determine the full impact of self-care on children.

3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF SCHOOL-AGE CHILD CARE IN AMERICA

School-age child care is not a new issue; it has been around for at least one hundred years and it has a policy history as well. A review of the history of school-age child care demonstrates that, as a nation, we have been grappling with the problem for a long time.

School-age child care has increased in importance and visibility as women have entered the labor force and as families have experienced the loss of traditional supports from kin. During the late nineteenth century, traditional forms of care became less available as families moved from rural to urban areas.[1] Charities and day nurseries began to provide care for school-age children as early as 1894. In Buffalo, New York, school-age children could attend the *crèche* of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society after school. Activities included washing the younger children's clothes, wiping dishes, and peeling potatoes.[2]

Often, the early child care services had a mission; they were vehicles which helped immigrant children assimilate or which offered care for children from poor or troubled homes.

A number of employers provided care and schooling for employees' children and for children working in factories. Until child labor laws were enacted (an example of "unintended" policy on school-age child care), children were considered economic assets to the family, often working in fields and in factories. With the initation in 1928 of compulsory school laws for children aged six to fourteen, life changed for many children, but some were still required to take care of younger siblings or to work for the family. The Los Angeles Board of Education established day nurseries in 1917 so that children from six to fourteen years old could attend school while their younger siblings were cared for in the day nursery.[3,4,5]

By the early 1920s, "progressive" concepts about expressive curricula—"dramatic play," arts and crafts, as well as recreational activities—began to be introduced into the private schools so children's learning processes could be nurtured. Many educators felt that these innovations also should be provided for "underprivileged" children. As a result, the idea of the "play school" was developed and organized in settlement houses, community centers, and some public schools in areas such as New York City, Cleveland, Detroit, and Dallas. The play schools offered to poor children, during the summer, the type of individualized, learn-by-doing curriculum used in the progressive private schools. They were, in effect, early SACC programs.

Through the 1920s and 1930s and into the World War II period, the play school concept expanded and eventually included the children of middle class mothers who worked outside the home. These programs were well positioned to receive federal funding during the World War II period. For example, seventeen "after-school canteens" were opened in suburban Detroit public schools for children aged five to eight, and the Dallas Board of Education opened twenty "school-age centers" in housing projects, as well as in the schools.

School-age care first became a public policy issue during World War II when federal wartime day care funds became available through the Community Facilities Act—the Lanham Act—in 1940. The need for female workers for the war effort increased the need for child care for children of all ages. When the war ended and women were no longer needed as workers, federal funding ended. (In some areas programs continued to be funded by state or local funds; this was the case in the states of Maryland, Massachusetts, Washington, and California, and in the City of New York.) Yet many women continued to work and required child care. Federal funding and policy reflected the social context of the times, which placed women in the home.

During the 1950s and 1960s changes in Title IV-A of the Social Security Act paved the way for a later thrust in the 1970s towards welfare reform under President Richard Nixon, which would put welfare mothers to work while providing child care. Also the Social Security Amendments of the 1960s opened the door to funding and expansion of all day care. Title IV-A and IV-B did provide day care funds, although most of it went to preschool.

Public School Involvement in SACC: An Historical Perspective

During World War II, nearly three thousand extended school programs served over one hundred thousand children. Eight hundred and thirty-five school-age child care centers also served nearly thirty thousand children, along with several hundred combined nursery/school-age child care programs.[6] The federal government was heavily involved in this effort. Ninety-five percent of all day care centers were under the auspices of the federal Office of Education. Most were located in the new schools built in the 1930s by the WPA. In addition to providing funds for day care, the Office of Education sought to encourage further expansion to school-based day care by distributing a pamphlet on how to start day care programs for preschool and school-age children, recommending that local child care committees be formed, and advocating that schools were the most viable places in which to locate programs.[7] It pointed out that transportation problems would be minimized, schools would lend status to day care—long stigmatized as "charity"—and middle class families would be more likely to use programs located in the public schools.[8]

The educational and professional associations also began to show interest in SACC. In March 1943, a central theme for the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators was the "plight" of the "door key children."[9]

After World World II, federal funds for day care were eliminated. Only a few school systems retained their SACC programs (among them, the State of California and New York City).[10] It wasn't until the 1970s that day care and the public schools reemerged as a national policy issue.

The 1978 Education Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act included language which spoke to the potential involvement of schools in other than educational purposes. Title VIII, the Community Education Act, allowed the use of schools for various activities, in collaboration with the community. Community schools across the country do provide school-age child care or offer space to other groups which administer programs in community schools. Florida, North Carolina, and Minnesota are among the many states that provide and promote community school use for SACC.

During the 1970s, as a practical alternative to school "ownership" of day care, a number of communities began implementing partnership programs: collaborations between schools, as host agency, and community group, day care agency, or parent organization. These collaborations were natural extensions of the schools' interest in children and families, but were without large budget implications for the schools.

Federal Attention to SACC: 1970-1980

The 1972 Nixon presidential veto of the 1971 Comprehensive Child Development Act that included children up to age fourteen may also have been responsible for the subsequent failure of all other similar efforts in the 1970s.[11] However, in 1972 a special ten-member interagency School-Age Day Care Task Force was created by the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (The task force was to prepare for possible major welfare reform legislation to be proposed that year.) Fifty-eight school-age child care programs were surveyed; the task force observed that there was a lack of school-age programs nationally and a dearth of research on the topic. Among its recommendations, the task force proposed that:

- *optional forms of day care* should be made available for school-age children to allow parents choices among general alternatives, and

- *federal support should be given to three care options:* (1) center-based programs located in recreational or youth-serving agencies—considered as "untapped resources," according to the task force; (2) family day care agencies or family day care homes united under the auspices of a single organization; and (3) "agency/school collaborations." (The task force generally opposed school-operated programs unless they provided compensatory education for low-income or disadvantaged children.)

The task force also discovered that migrant families and rural families had difficulty obtaining child care for their school-age children. Migrant children were found working in the fields, and younger school-age children were caring for their infant and toddler siblings while their mothers worked. The task force's report states:

> *There is a lack of financial resources, difficulty in obtaining facilities, difficulties in reaching and communicating with families, wide fluctuations in the number of children needing care, lack of transportation and need for care of younger siblings.*[12]

The School-Age Day Care Task Force's findings and recommendations had important policy implications, but its report was never officially published or made available to the public. However, DHEW did publish an informational booklet on school-age day care in 1972,[13] which might be regarded as evidence of a more positive stance on the issue than would have been expected, given the Nixon veto.

In 1974 a bill (Child and Family Services Act of 1974) submitted to Congress by Senators Walter Mondale (D-MN) and John Brademas (D-IN) gave priority to preschool children. Unlike previous legislation, school-age child care was not included in this bill, probably because of the earlier veto by President Nixon. Comprehensive day care services for children of all ages and for families from all income groups was no longer considered politically feasible. In fact, the 1974 Child and Family Services Act was targeted for a coordinated mail campaign charging that children in child care would become "wards" of the state and that early childhood education would be "sovietized," and the bill never made it out of the congressional committee hearings.[14]

During hearings of the Child and Family Services Act of 1974, the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) and its president, Albert Shanker, took the position that the schools were a logical institution to use for the expansion of day care services. These views were elaborated in an AFT manual, written in 1976, *Putting Early Childhood Education and Day Care Services into the Schools.* While the emphasis was on preschool day care, SACC was among the programs that could be provided by the schools. However, James Levine, in *Day Care and the Public Schools,* writes that many day care advocates were opposed to school-operated programs, claiming that the AFT was more concerned about the needs of unemployed teachers than the need for services to children and families.[15] The failure of the 1974 bill to pass diminished much of the controversy over the issue of the public schools as prime sponsors of day care. Nevertheless, James Levine wrote in 1978 that "the public school question continues to generate a steady stream of activity.... Future day care policy, planning, and politics will not easily neglect the relationship between day care and the public schools...the 'public school question' will not easily disappear."[16]

Several years after the 1974 attempt to pass child care legislation, Senator Alan Cranston (D-CA) introduced The Child Care Act of 1979. This bill was intended to provide funds to expand as well as coordinate day care programs. This time school-age child care was included in the legislation. The Cranston bill recognized that school-age children were "at risk" for "school vandalism, juvenile alcoholism, and serious juvenile crimes," without after-school supervision.[17] But, because of anticipated lack of support for this bill, the Child Care Act of 1979 was withdrawn from consideration before the congressional voting process.

Despite the fact that no specific day care legislation was passed during the 1970s, day care services did expand during the latter part of the decade under Title XX. Liberalized income guidelines and the introduction of sliding-fee scales increased the numbers of children eligible for federally supported day care and provided some continuity of care. By the end of the 1970s, a more restrictive view of day care emerged. Some states resurrected workfare programs, based on the Nixon model which used day care as a means for reducing the AFDC caseloads, and began moving day care funds away from social services and into the AFDC program. Income disregards (see Chapter 5, p. 33), which had been available for working AFDC parents and WIN participants, also suffered serious cutbacks, making child care even less affordable for this vulnerable population.

Current Federal Involvement in SACC

Funding cuts in federal programs under the Reagan administration have profoundly affected all types of child care. During the 1982-83 fiscal years, major cuts were sustained in the Social Services Block Grant and the Child Care Food Program, CETA, and AFDC. Centers serving low-income children who were formerly eligible for government subsidies have had to eliminate services to many of these children. Some centers have stopped providing services altogether.

Yet despite a political climate of cutbacks and reductions in all human services, several new initiatives that respond to the growing need for child care have been introduced to Congress. One bill would directly affect the supply of school-age child care. Senators Donald Riegle (D-MI) and Claiborne Pell (D-RI) introduced to the United States Senate in June 1983 the "School Facilities Child Care Act," (Senate Bill No. 1531), the purpose of which is to "encourage the use of public school facilities before and after school hours for the care of school-age children and for other purposes."[18] The bill would provide fifteen million dollars for each of three consecutive years for the development of school-age programs.* (See Appendix D) Other significant legislation submitted in the 98th Congress includes the "Child Care Information and Referral Services Act" (H.R.2242), which addresses the need for systematic, centralized methods of matching parents with providers. This bill also provides the opportunity for systematic collection of data on local supply and demand.[20]

In 1983, Representative George Miller (D-CA) successfully established the "Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families" whose mandate is "to force the Congress to listen to the needs of children and families." A companion effort in the Senate was initiated in June 1983 by Senators Christopher Dodd (D-CT) and Arlen Spector (R-PA): The Senate Children's Caucus. The Children's Caucus held its first policy forum on June 9, 1983, to hear testimony on the problems of school-age children without supervision and care. A press release on the Caucus' proposed activities quoted Senator Dodd:

> *Today's forum represents one of the many problems on which there are no accurate statistics or sufficient information. We know an increasing number of children live in families where working parents cannot be home in the afternoon. The risks for these children are great. Some may be prone to accident or injury. In Newark, New Jersey, for example, one of every six fires over one year involved children alone in a household. Alternatives should be available for children who want or need them, especially for those between the ages of five and thirteen.*
> (Press Release, June 9, 1983, Christopher Dodd, U.S. Senator, Connecticut)

Bills responsive to child care may or may not be enacted into legislation; if they are, there is still the question of dollar appropriations and the development of regulations by the agencies charged with administering them. While the Congress has demonstrated interest in school-age child care, it remains to be seen if this interest will be sustained over time and will result in action.

* An expanded version of the bill was introduced in the House of Representatives as H.R.4193 by Reps. Patricia Schroeder (D-CO), Sala Burton (D-CA), and Geraldine Ferraro (D-NY). This version of the bill would provide thirty million dollars for each of three consecutive years to community agencies and schools to develop school-age programs.[19]

4 THE SPECIAL ROLE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

...public schools are now being forced to reexamine their role as service providers for America's children and families. All over the country, public schools are struggling to compete with a new wave of private education that is significantly reducing the size of the public school population and changing its nature. I am fascinated that these new private schools have adopted the concept of the extended day as a major thrust of their competition with the public schools. If public schools do not respond to this type of competing service pressure, they will undoubtedly lose more and more of the middle class children they are hoping to keep in the public schools.
(From "Day Care and the Schools" by Bettye M. Caldwell in *Theory Into Practice.*)

Caldwell's warning has not gone unheard. In fact, public schools *are* responding to the rising economic and environmental pressures that are being forced upon them—lower birth rates, families' geographic mobility, attrition to private schools, severe funding cuts, increased public disaffection with the quality of public education, and the changing needs of children and their families. For many schools, one response has been to facilitate the development of before- and after-school child care for school-age children.

More than half of the 171 school-age child care programs the School-Age Child Care Project interviewed across the country in 1979 had some type of affiliation with the public schools, or in a few cases, were operated by the public schools. No additional national data exists as to the extent of school involvement in the provision of before- and/or after-school child care. However, our technical assistance activities indicate that public school interest in school-age child care is increasing. From 1980 through 1982, several hundred written and telephone requests for information and/or technical assistance were received from public school administrators and elected school officials. And many articles on school-age child care have appeared in education magazines and journals.[1]

How Schools Are Involved

Options for public school involvement in SACC range along a continuum, from schools willing to transport children to a community-based center, to others that have implemented written policies welcoming school-based community partnerships, to schools that want to administer the program themselves. In general, school-based programs are either "partnerships" between the schools and another organization or administered by the schools. Both types of programs usually charge a fee to parents and may also seek financial support from government for low-income children.

Descriptions of both types of administrative structures are included in Appendix A.

What Are the Positive Arguments for School Involvement?

- Providing school-age child care helps build parent support for the school, especially from single-parent and two-parent working families who view SACC as a vital community service. Dr. Lawrence Cuban, former Superintendent of Arlington, Virginia, public schools put it this way: "Extended Day eases the anxiety of parents, the hostility parents may feel if schools won't care before and after school. If schools move in that direction, it's better for families and for kids and is therefore better for the schools."[2]
- SACC can help to maintain or increase enrollments by attracting or retaining families in the public school system. Superintendents of the public schools in Brookline, Massachusetts, and Arlington, Virginia, have both gone on record crediting their extended day programs for maintaining levels of elementary school enrollments.[3],[4]
- The use of empty classrooms and gymnasiums represents an effective use of public resources at a time of declining enrollments. School policy varies with respect to rental fees for partnership programs. In Fairfax County, Virginia, for example, the board of education offers rent-free space to the county's school-age programs administered by the Office for Children. In Montgomery County, Maryland, on the other hand, rent is charged to the program. The program's use of otherwise surplus space in currently operating schools is viewed as an effective use of space, while at the same time a means for the school system to recoup lost revenue.
- SACC may help to decrease vandalism and delinquency by reducing the number of children "hanging around" during after-school hours. As cited in a 1981 article of *U.S. News and World Report*, vandalism at three Portland, Oregon, schools fell from twelve thousand dollars in damages in one year to two hundred dollars the next year. This was attributed to the presence of after-school programs.[5]
- SACC may help with desegregation efforts as a formal or informal magnet service. In some cases, SACC may eliminate busing for desegregation entirely. The principal of a court-ordered Nashville, Tennessee, school in which enrollment had been declining reported that since their day care program began in 1977, enrollment has increased from 300 to 480 students. "By request, 100 middle-class white children asked for redistricting to this school because of the programs."[6]

What Are the Problems with Public School Involvement?

No matter who administers the program, problems with public school involvement in SACC do surface. These problems fall into three categories: 1) resistant attitudes; 2) problems of operation; and 3) the absence or inadequacy of school policy.

Resistant Attitudes

> *The school is not a social agency—our business is reading, writing, and arithmetic....*
> *The family should take care of its own, not pay for day care or have governments pay for it.*[7]

- Ambiguity about the limits of the school's responsibility to the child and the child's family deters public school involvement in SACC. Is day care consistent with the school's mandate or should the schools stick to "reading, writing, and arithmetic"? This question often brings about vigorous philosophical debate because, as national day care expert Bettye Caldwell writes, there exists "a lack of conceptual clarity about what day care is and what it should provide children."[8] No consensus exists on the educational nature of day care or the custodial function in schooling. Virginia's and Oregon's attorneys general, for example, view day care as "essentially custodial in nature" and therefore separate and unrelated to education.
- Resistance to SACC from school personnel and taxpayers is often based on fears of "increased responsibility" or "rising taxes." But in some cases, the underlying causes may be based on general opposition to offering social services, particularly to working mothers.

Problems of Operation

- School principals, board members, and officials are concerned about the absence of clear guidelines for the accountability and liability of the school-based SACC program. School personnel need to be assured that the schools will not be held legally responsible in case a child or staff member is hurt while attending the program.

- School administrators and staff are often concerned about the impact of SACC on the day-to-day operation of the school. Schools that host partner programs may face objections from classroom teachers or other school personnel concerning the use of shared space (cafeteria, gym, artrooms, and classrooms); extra work for the custodian, secretary, or principal, who is often the arbitrator between the program and school personnel; and inconsistent rules and practices between the school and the program.

The Absence or Inadequacy of School Policy

- Guidelines and procedures for the development of school policy regarding SACC are often lacking or unclear. For example: How do schools determine which outside groups may use their space? What sort of in-kind or direct contribution will the schools make to the program? What responsibilities, financial or otherwise, will the partner group need to assume? What are the legal considerations that must be addressed?
- Absence of state or local policy regarding the use of the public schools for other than mandated purposes may leave the schools vulnerable to attack. Sources of criticism are: citizens who are alarmed by rising school taxes and generally opposed to any outside use of public schools; public and private groups who are competing for the same use of school space; and proprietary day care owners who are concerned about what they see as unfair competition. The absence of written policies has contributed to the ambiguous nature of SACC and has allowed for litigation against the schools in Alabama and Arkansas. In Florida, private child care centers have considered litigation against public school boards that operate SACC programs because the use of tax-supported school space has been perceived as an unfair competitive advantage.

  In Arizona, opposition to public school involvement has resulted in legislative proposals which, if they had been passed, would prohibit the schools from participating in any way in day care programs—either as a partner or as sole administrator, except in the case of summertime, community school programming for recreational purposes. The legislation has been attempted, in various forms, by both the Arizona House and Senate legislatures. At the time of this writing, the proposals have not been enacted.

  In Alabama, similar opposition from the private sector resulted in a lawsuit filed against the County Board of Education, arguing that the board lacked the statutory authority to operate day care programs. In this case (Clark *et al. vs.* Jefferson County Board of Education, Judgment, April 1982) the court reached the conclusion that the board did have the authority to operate the programs:

> *The statutory provisions which govern and control the policies and practices of the Board of Education which would best serve the needs of the community and of the school system are very broad in their provisions and the discretion accorded to the Defendant in the implementation of these statutes are not subject to review unless there appears a clear showing of abuse or invalidity. This Court finds that the activities which are alleged in the Bill of Complaint as a basis for the relief stated are within the scope of the broad powers granted to county boards of education.*[9]

The Alabama decision represents a legal precedent at the circuit court level in favor of the schools. But litigation is time consuming and costly. A legislative approach may offer greater protection for the public schools. State enabling legislation would permit the schools to operate fee-based SACC programs, whether or not the fees covered the entire cost of the program. The legislation would also include language that would permit schools to lease space to outside organizations.* (See Appendix D for Model Enabling Statute.)

Solutions: Policy and Operation

Policy decisions on public school involvement in school-age child care can be formulated at three major levels. The first level involves federal or state legislative initiatives; the second involves policy statements from major national or state professional and educational associations; the third involves district or local school board initiatives. The effect policies can have on the development of SACC can range from merely symbolic encouragement to the actual provision of start-up grants or financial subsidy. Here are some highlights of several solutions that have been spearheaded by state and local government or the private sector.

* *A Manual for Public School Administrators: Legal Considerations for the Implementation of School-Age Child Care* is a forthcoming publication by Abby Cohen, of the San Francisco, Cal., Child Care Law Center. The manual is a collaboration of the School-Age Child Care Project and the Child Care Law Center. It will be published in 1984.

Legislative Initiatives

Massachusetts, Oregon, and Connecticut have enacted legislation that has directly or indirectly supported the use of schools for child care. In Massachusetts, for example, Chapter 496 of the *Acts of 1981*, "An Act Further Regulating the Leasing of Certain School Property," although not specifically mentioning child care, states that:

> *a city or town, with the approval of the school committee, may rent or lease surplus space in a school building in actual use to simultaneously house public or private, profit-making businesses or nonprofit organizations; provided, however, that such occupancy shall not interfere with educational programs being conducted in said building. The monies received from such rental or lease shall be kept separate and apart from other city or town funds in the city or town treasury by the treasurer.*[10]

At the time of this writing, further enabling legislation is expected to reach the Massachusetts legislature during its fall session in 1983. Senate Bill S.306, entitled "An Act to Promote and Provide After School Care for Children,"[11] is fashioned after Oregon's 1981 bill which gives school districts the authority to run or contract for before- and after-school activities.[12]

In Connecticut, enabling legislation states:

> *(a) Any local or regional board of education may provide for the use of any room, hall, schoolhouse, school grounds or other school facility within its jurisdiction for non-profit educational or community purposes whether or not school is in session.*[13]

These state legislative initiatives are designed to suggest only that schools share their existing resources. Should they wish to, local school districts may develop their own guidelines and policies, subject to local review.

Initiatives by Professional and Educational Associations

Policy statements and recommendations by national or state associations can support and stimulate work at the local level. The National School Boards Association issued a policy statement on the question of appropriate school involvement in community and social services. A Task Force on Local Responsibility for Children was convened in 1978 to "study existing cooperative school/community child-service delivery systems and to propose policies for both NSBA and its state associations." The task force developed the following recommendation:

> *Boards of Education should adopt policies that enable professional staff to work with other community professionals in planning services for children.... Local school boards should consider allowing professional community agencies, such as mental health or general medical, to utilize unused space within their facilities to provide school-house services for students.*[14]

The NSBA policy statement also states: "when services at the neighborhood level are increased and improved, the school in that neighborhood will begin to exhibit good side effects."[15]

The National Association for Elementary School Principals and the Kettering Foundation's Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A) cosponsored, in 1979, a three-year longitudinal study which looked at the school needs of children from one-parent families. Although the subject of the study focused on this specific population, the phenomenon of the one-parent family is so widespread that its implications for all schools is simply too great to be ignored. It is not our purpose to dwell on the specific details of the study, although the overall conclusion indicated that "these children are at risk and that some of them may need extra help at school." However, it does seem relevant to mention one of the recommendations that was drawn from the research:

> *For the working single parent (and most fall into that category), the very mechanics of child care can become a logistical nightmare. Many school systems are already offering extended day programs of before and after school activities that give children a structured, productive, and familiar place to go when there is no one at home to look after them. Schools should also consider providing child-care facilities during school functions and parent-teacher conferences.* [16]

At the state level, the Virginia Women Attorneys' Association included in their legislative agenda for 1982-1983 the following legislative proposal:

> *4. Provide funding for the implementation of extended child care in our public school buildings to serve the needs of families who*

otherwise have no access to after-school child care and through necessity leave their small children at home unattended.[17]

Attached to the agenda is a position paper which recommends that: "Extended childcare programs should be created using school buildings with the guidance and cooperation of parents and the community. Programs could be operated by nonprofit parent groups, community organizations, city agencies, or the school district, and paid for by a combination of parents fees and state or local funds. For example, the Block Grant funding mechanism gives areas a funding source to look to for such programs."[18]

Local School Initiatives

Local policies concerning the use of school space for child care have been implemented in a number of communities. In each case, the problems and solutions to those problems are often quite different, although the reasons for developing written policy guidelines are usually the same—to anticipate legal gray areas or territorial problems. The following are a few examples of local policy action:

- In Montgomery County, Maryland, declining enrollments and school closings prompted the school board to recover some lost revenue for the school system. The Joint Occupancy Program has allowed the schools to lease surplus school space, in operating facilities, to qualified users. Priority is given to educational programs, both public and private, in which day care is included. The rent is based on the licensed capacity of the program. All programs are required to purchase adequate liability coverage and to agree upon clear guidelines that save the board of education and the school system "from any and all claims, demands, suits, or other forms of liability that may arise out of the use of school space."[19]
- In Boulder, Colorado, the Board of Education set a broad policy direction for the use of school buildings as child care centers:

The Board of Education authorizes the use of public school buildings before and/or after school for child care programs for school-age children when the building is not in use for the regular school programs. All authorized programs will be self-supporting. Any costs incurred by the school district directly related to a child care program will be charged to the program, including but not limited to custodial services and utility costs.
The local school is expressly prohibited from assuming responsibility as the sponsoring agency unless specific authorization is first obtained from the Board of Education.[20]

- The Metropolitan Board of Education in Davidson County, Tennessee, published the pamphlet, *So—You Want to Use Our Schools for Your Day Care Program? Here's How....* The pamphlet encourages greater community use of the schools and spells out the procedures for obtaining school system approval.[21]
- Lincoln, Massachusetts, a small suburban community which has housed a SACC program in its public schools since 1981, developed *Guidelines for Use of School Facilities by Non-Profit Child Care Programs.* Upon the approval of the school committee, the guidelines stipulate that "these guidelines shall apply to those groups whose primary purpose is to provide services for children and who use space in the Lincoln Public Schools on a regular, daily basis." The formal agreement between the schools and the partner group requires that the child care program be self-supporting. In return, the schools contribute custodial coverage until 6:00 p.m. and electricity and heat for the "home-base" room when school is regularly in session. The program is charged for custodial services during snow days, vacation weeks, and holidays.[22]

What Are the Implications for the Future?

Public school involvement in school-age child care is still at the threshold of wider policy implications; many questions are still left to be answered. For example:

- What are the tradeoffs of the various administrative options (partnership or school-run)? Is it better for the program to be "part of the system" or to maintain administrative, fiscal, and programmatic autonomy?
- How do schools assess the actual financial impact of SACC on the school system, particularly when school buildings are being used by others (teachers, staff, and community) during most of the hours SACC is in session anyway? Do these costs really represent a significant part of the school's operating budget...or do the benefits of hosting a SACC program (increased enrollment, improved public image, etc.) outweigh the minimal financial expense the schools would have to incur?
- Will school systems view the implementation of school-age child care programs as one way to increase general revenues, without first assessing

the financial implications for the quality of the programs (staff/child ratios, staff salaries, programmatic resources) and whether low-income families can afford the program?

- Is it the school's responsibility to offer child care to children with disabilities, who may require specialized services and staff? If a child's individual education plan (IEP) were to indicate a need for socialization and opportunities to interact with other, nonhandicapped children, would a SACC program fulfill that requirement? If so, are the day care costs to be assumed by the public school? If the program is run by a private, not-for-profit agency that uses public school space, who pays?
- Will school administrators and policymakers consider carefully the implications of decisions to implement before- and after-school programs, particularly programs which emphasize academic learning which may be inconsistent with what some parents and children want from school-age child care programs—safe and reliable child care and informal learning, in enriching environments where social and emotional growth are stressed? If academic preparedness *is* to be one function of school-run programs, will such programs *only* be offered to children in need of child care?

Will the recent movement towards full-day kindergarten be interpreted by parents as a form of child care even though school hours do not conform to parents' full-time work schedules?

Although many questions regarding the public schools' involvement in school-age child care remain unanswered, the positive effects experienced by schools that have been involved in SACC should encourage policymakers at all levels to carefully examine further expansion of this resource.

5 FINANCING: WHO WILL PAY THE PIPER AND HOW WILL HE BE PAID?

The Financial Context Surrounding SACC

The most pressing dilemma facing all child care today, and one that must be addressed directly if we are to see the necessary proliferation of quality programs for young children, is the problem of "who pays?" Many parents cannot afford to pay the full cost of any type of child care. Says policy expert Gwen Morgan, "Generally, parents cannot afford to pay more than 10 percent of their total income for the care of all their children, their fourth highest expense after shelter, food, and taxes."[1] This means that in order to have a quality program that parents *can* afford, either supplemental funding sources must be found, or the program must minimize its expenses so that care *is* affordable—or some of both. But how much tuition is too much, how much cost cutting will strip the program of its quality, and how much outside funding can child care programs really hope to attract?

> *After a decade of research, quality day care can to some degree be both defined and delivered. Given adequate resources, competent caregivers can be found or developed, facilities made stimulating and safe, and smaller rather than larger groups formed and maintained. The question is: Who will pay the piper and how will he be paid?*[2]

Funding and Policy Problems

Striking a delicate balance among three key elements—parent fees, staff salaries/working conditions, and quality of care—presents a great challenge to all child care programs. Parent fees that escalate exclude many families and threaten to "gentrify" some child care, making it a service only for those who can pay. The development of a two-tier child care system—one for the well-to-do and one for the poor—is a possible side effect. Child care staff, by working for extremely low salaries, provide many child care programs with the "largest hidden subsidy of all."[3]

Another difficulty superimposed upon these general funding issues is that cuts in the traditional sources of government funding have sent child care programs scrambling for other—and even scarcer—government funds. As a result, child care programs of all types are finding it more difficult to serve low-income families, are forced to cut expenditures and raise tuitions, and, in some cases, are reducing services or being forced to close. These cuts, occurring simultaneously with the increased need for child care and for continuity of care for children, further exacerbate an already difficult situation. Human service programs of all types are finding themselves competing for the same shrinking dollars.

While all forms of child care face funding difficulties, SACC programs face additional stresses and strains because of their particular structure and auspices.

School-age child care has multiple affiliations. School-age care is not "owned by any one discipline; school-age care can be affiliated with a variety of organizations and institutions—the schools, recreation services, day care, and youth services. While, on the one hand, the diversity of support gives to school-age programs a certain strength, on the other hand it may mean that needed legitimacy and consistent financial support may be lacking or more difficult to acquire.

The diversity of support leads to a dependence on resources from all sectors, public and private. Program staffs have in the past been augmented by adults and youth in public service employment programs (the Public Service Employment Program of CETA was eliminated in 1981); city recreation departments have provided activities and facilities for many programs; schools have contributed in-kind resources, such as rent-free space. When municipal and governmental budget cuts occur, school-age programs suffer.

School-age programs must compete with other child care programs for scarce government funding. In fact, school-age programs suffer from a "double whammy." Not only must programs compete with other social service programs for consideration at the state level for government funding, but they also must compete with preschool day care. In addition, new programs must compete with older programs for government funds (social services, CDBG) to serve low-income families. The status of school-age child care programs as an important service to be funded is unclear in the eyes of many state-level policymakers. When government dollars are scarce, policymakers tend to allocate them to the "tried-and-true" providers with whom they have had long-standing, satisfactory relationships. They are less likely to gamble on funding a new program—particularly one without proven substantiation—than they are when the dollars are flowing freely. When school-age programs seek support from private funding sources, a similar situation occurs. And in some communities private funding agencies have had to make hard decisions about which established day care program to fund in the face of increased need due to government cutbacks. In some cases, funders have avoided making grants to any child care programs simply because of difficulty in evaluating the worthiness of one program over another. In addition, it has recently been reported that the funding of day care by private social service funding agencies has not grown significantly during the past few years. The United Way, for example, spends only 5 percent of its total funding for day care.[4] School-age child care suffers in this competition from its historical dilemma: the lack of consensus about the need for the service, since many parents use patchwork arrangements, including self-care; and the fact that the community at large has not always perceived school-age programs as critical.

Conversely, states may be tempted to allocate funds to school-age day care which had been earmarked for preschool day care, to be consistent with work requirements under AFDC rules which mandate that mothers with children six years old and over must work. Costs for school-age child care are lower than costs for preschool care; with equal funds, SACC could serve more children. Initially this policy looks attractive to states implementing workfare-style programs. However, allocating more resources for school-age child care must not be at the expense of preschool child care, *unless* needs assessment data indicate that such a shift is indicated.*

Start-Up and Operating Problems

It has been shown that community task forces can and do function as facilitators to make best use of existing facilities and funding resources. However, such groups require money for staffing and operating in order to do this work. Many agencies cannot subsume such a coordinating function under their operating budgets, so separate funding is necessary.

Programs often require some start-up money with which to purchase equipment, to make renovations to space in order to comply with licensing requirements, and to make the space appropriate to the needs of school-age children. Government funds are rarely available for start-up costs.

Programs need funding for special categories of services; for example, additional money for transportation would make the program available to some children who would otherwise not have access. The exclusion of transportation as an allowable cost in many states prohibits many programs from serving certain categories of children.

As evidence of the "nonstatus" of school-age child care, some SACC programs have had difficulty in

* In 1981, the state of Massachusetts shifted funds from preschool day care to school-age day care in the belief that welfare clients participating in that state's workfare plan would use these new slots. The policy shift was not based on any new data from needs assessments. It was further complicated by giving the state's day care providers (who had to respond to Requests for Proposal) only two weeks notice that additional funds would be available for school-age child care. The policy was withdrawn when it was realized that the lack of accurate data, poor planning, and strong objections from child care providers had already jeopardized the process.[5]

obtaining tax-exempt status from the IRS. Both infant and school-age child care programs have had to redefine their mission in order to obtain tax exemption. Programs meeting the needs of children for care, recreation, and informal education need to be legitimized—which involves a governmental redefinition of "educational" and "child care" categories in IRS regulations so that the spirit as well as the letter of the law will be fulfilled.

In cases where charges for rent and utilities are made by sponsoring or host institutions, many programs experienced difficulty in paying the fees charged. This is especially true for new programs which have not reached capacity or in situations where rental fees do not reflect the program's income.

Staff salaries are adversely affected when programs are paying high rental and transportation costs. The high rates of staff turnover as a result of low salaries disrupt continuity of care for children. Parent tuitions often bear the brunt of overly expensive operating and overhead costs. Programs which operate only part-day pose special problems since the part-time staff they employ must find a second source of income and often receive fewer benefits. This may result in divided loyalties, job stress, and, predictably, in higher than desirable staff turnover.

In addition, SACC programs receiving government funding often find that the rate of reimbursement does not reflect actual costs. For example, in Madison, Wisconsin, the SACC programs in the After School Day Care Association are reimbursed $1.10 per hour for *up to* three hours of care. However, these programs occasionally operate full time (*e.g.*, summer vacations and school holidays) and when they do, parents' fees must be increased to cover fixed expenses for overhead and staffing not covered by the government reimbursement.

The Costs to Parents

In a majority of programs across the country, parent fees comprise well over 50 percent of the overall program income. Fees range from fifteen dollars per week to—in a few cases—forty to fifty dollars per week. In some cases, programs rely exclusively on parent fees to cover costs. But many parents are feeling a financial squeeze, so that it is more difficult for them to pay all of the costs of school-age care; when they have more than one child in care, the cost of school-age care competes with the cost of preschool child care and other family necessities. SACC often ends up at the bottom of the list.

Employer support to child care has not "picked up" where government funding has left off, particularly for low-income families. In addition, employers often focus on preschool child care only.

Parents who are employed full or part time, or who are actively seeking work, may file for federal tax credits for a portion of their child care costs. The maximum child care expense for which credit can be taken is $2,400 for one child per year, or $4,800 for two or more children. The tax credit is not refundable and is limited to a parent's tax liability. Thus, the credit is not very helpful to low-income families. On the state level, some thirty states provide tax credits for parents who file for the federal tax credit, although in only two is the tax refundable. In 1981, only about 7 percent of the 4.6 million families making use of the dependent care tax credit had incomes below $10,000.[6] The federal tax credit for child care is not being used by all who qualify. For example, in 1981, 4.6 million families filed claims for child care deductions,[7] although the number of families with working mothers who purchase child care far exceeds that number.

Before- and after-school child care for children with special needs is generally not supported by funding provided under PL 94-142, and parents and SACC programs find that they cannot afford the higher cost (more staff, special equipment, etc.) associated with serving this population. Therefore, only a few programs around the country are able to offer special services for special-needs children.

Who is Paying for School-Age Child Care?

In general, SACC's sources of income—both cash and in-kind—are:

- Parent Fees
- Schools
- Government
- Private Sector

Parent Fees

Parent fees are a primary funding source for SACC. In some programs a "flat fee" for all enrolled children is charged; in others a "sliding fee scale" or a "scholarship program" is used. Fees range considerably, depending upon the in-kind contributions and other funding sources that a program has, as well as the level of costs for staffing, transportation, and rent. Fees vary in different parts of the country as does the cost of care. High quality programs—rich in materials, program offerings, and specialized staff—cost more and affect parent fees. Viable SACC programs

must strike a balance between fees that are affordable to parents and those that allow the program to provide a quality service. An excellent program is of no use if parents cannot afford to use it.

Schools

Increasingly, public schools are providing both direct and indirect support for school-age child care programs. This is usually done, in cases where the schools collaborate with another agency, group, or institution, through in-kind contributions. Of the 171 programs in thirty-three states interviewed by the SACC Project in 1979, at least 50 percent were classified as public school "partnerships." Sixty-five percent of the public school-based partnership programs were receiving substantial in-kind donations from the public schools in the form of space and utilities. Slightly less than 50 percent were receiving in-kind custodial services. The remaining programs had entered into negotiated agreements with the schools for payment of rent and a portion of utilities and custodial costs.

Federal Government Sources

The bulk of state funding for school-age programs comes from the federal government social services block grant (formerly Title XX) to the states. While funding has been available for school-age child care programs or for eligible families to use either SACC or family day care, we have no data on the actual amount of money that has been spent on school-age care. States often require parents to pay a portion of their child care costs, related to their income on a sliding-scale basis.

States are free to decide what proportion of federal funds will be used for child care; who will receive funding; and under what stipulations. The net effect of this policy is wide variation from state to state. For example, the Children's Defense Fund reports that six states (Delaware, Indiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Texas) cut back on school-age child care that was previously provided to children through Title XX by lowering the ceiling age for eligibility, reducing funding, raising parent fees, or limiting reimbursement for transportation costs.[8]

In the past, states had to match each three dollars of federal funds with one dollar of state funds. Amendments to Title XX in 1981 eliminated this requirement (and also eliminated separate funds for child care staff training).

Other Federal Child Care Funding Options

Income Disregards. Women who are receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) and whose children are over six years old are now required to look for work if they are to continue to receive AFDC. The AFDC benefit will be reduced, to some degree, by the amount of money they earn. However, current federal law permits up to $150 a month for child care expenses to be excluded from the earnings calculation for four months. (This is known as income disregard.) In this way a family can keep more of its AFDC benefit or more of its job income. However, after the four months, this benefit may end and the family may have to find cheaper care. This recent change of policy significantly reduces both the total amount available for child care and the amount of time for which disregard applies.

Child Nutrition. Through the Child Care Food Program of the Department of Agriculture, many SACC programs are eligible for federal subsidies to cover their food costs. Reimbursements (and/or commodities) may be given for meals and snacks, depending upon the income level of the children in care. Funds from this important program have been cut by 30 percent, or nearly $130 million a year.[9]

Other. Several federal training and employment programs allow funds to be used for supportive child care services. The Work Incentive (WIN) program for AFDC recipients offers funding for care. The new Jobs Training Partnership Act also allows up to 15 percent of allocated funds to be used for work-related services, including child care. Some states—California, for example—have passed legislation requiring that the 15 percent funds be used specifically for child care.

State, Municipal, and County Government

Funds from state, county, and municipal governments have been used for start-up and operating support for school-age programs and for tuition subsidies. Examples of such support are: *outright grants* from cities and towns to local nonprofit programs; *state-level demonstration funding grants*; use of *county or state tax levies*; and, in particular, the distribution of *federal revenue-sharing/community development block grants* to child care programs, including school-age programs.

Community Development Block Grants

Through Community Development Block Grants (CDBG), cities may undertake a wide range of activities in the areas of economic development, neighborhood revitalization, and provision of improved community facilities and services. The CDBG program is administered through the

Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) which awards funds directly to eligible cities and counties. CDBG funds have been used, in limited amounts, to deliver child care services in areas targeted under the community development program. In order to receive these funds, projects must benefit persons of low or moderate income. Under the federal revenue sharing program, CDBG funds may be used to renovate or construct child care facilities or to support an operating program. Programs seeking funding must petition city and county governments, usually through the Mayor's Office or county or city planning departments, through proposals. Proposals must document both the need for the program and the program's ability to serve the targeted population as specified under the local government's definition of eligible population, geographic area, and eligible services.

Private Sector

Private, nonprofit social service agencies and organizations. The YMCA and YWCA, Girls' and Boys' Clubs, and other such groups have long been involved in offering some form of school-age care. These agencies were the first to recognize the needs of young school-age children for activities and enrichment (not provided by other groups or by the schools) during nonschool hours. Also, the financial commitment they have made—and continue to make—has been invaluable.

Community funding agencies and civic groups. United Way agencies and other local funding organizations and community foundations also make some contributions to school-age child care at the local level. In many instances, the United Way will take a leadership role in convening community task forces or research groups to examine that community's need for services. Such organizations as the Junior League, the League of Women Voters, and the American Association of University Women, as well as other professional organizations, also have played a vital role in conducting needs assessments, convening community meetings, and advising legislators on day care policy. Scholarship funds have been developed by church groups and service organizations to help parents to pay tuition. (This is particularly true of summertime day camp scholarship programs which allow many parents to enroll a child at an all-day summer program as a child care solution.)

Business and Industry. Employer support of school-age child care can be provided through direct grants or donations of needed goods, services, or technical assistance to school-age programs; by assistance to employees through a voucher or Dependent Care Assistance Plan (DCAP) which helps to finance employees' child care costs as a nontaxable benefit; by purchasing slots in existing programs for employees' children; or by direct support of a program or day camp that serves school-age children. To date, fewer employers support school-age child care than preschool child care.

As more employers realize the effects on management of unmet child care needs among their workers, business support of child care is likely to increase. While their support of actual programs is important, employers can increase their efforts to provide release time to parents to consult with teachers, participate as volunteers in after-school programs, or care for sick children.

The in-kind contribution of the business sector is also untapped. There could be substantial savings to SACC programs if business leaders were to volunteer their management and fiscal expertise, unused space and materials, and to participate in community efforts to increase the supply of SACC.

Tradeoffs

Depending on the types and amount of financial resources programs receive, tradeoffs and compromises are inevitable. While programs that receive free housing may be able to pay higher salaries or provide transportation, those that pay rent are more likely to find that they are not beholden to one major source of in-kind help. Funding presents a similar choice: raising and managing funds from a variety of sources is complicated and takes administrative time and expertise. On the other hand, receiving funds from various sources eliminates the possibility that the program will become the creature of a single large contributor. Having multiple sources also makes possible a more even cash flow—the program won't have to stop because government reimbursement has been delayed. In truth, some tradeoffs are "better" than others. Most importantly, government funding means that the SACC program will be able to serve a diverse population—subsidizing those who are unable to afford the true cost of care. Financial profiles of three programs which provide examples of different income sources and expenditures are included in Appendix B.

What Are Some Promising Solutions?

Creative approaches to the financial needs of school-age child care—in terms of both tuition support for parents and funding for the

administration of the programs—have been developed at the local and state levels. These solutions can best be understood as they affect start-up, general operating support, and support for parents' costs. Most of these examples are current and are specific to school-age care, but others are applicable to all types of day care. Their principal characteristics are: 1) They typify the collaborative efforts of institutions, agencies, and groups across the country who are meeting together to find new solutions to funding child care; 2) They represent new interest by the public and private sectors in child care, and in school-age care in particular.

Start-Up

- In Rochester, New York, the United Way Office of Child Care Services took administrative responsibility for organizing and implementing a conference on SACC in collaboration with schools, day care providers, clergy, government, parents, and advocacy groups. This was a beginning step in addressing the community problem of care for school-age children.
- In Houston, Texas, the Private Sector Initiatives Task Force—a group made up of chief executive officers of major corporations and the public schools—has raised substantial funds to subsidize start-up and general operating costs for a pilot, school-based SACC program. The schools have donated space. The program is administered by a local United Way social service agency and serves mostly low-income families, who pay for care on a sliding-fee scale. The program is solely dependent neither on government funds nor on parent tuition.
- Legislation entitled "An Act Concerning Day Care Facilities Loan Financing Fund"—to provide a revolving fund to finance expansion or development of day care facilities in the state—was recently passed by the Maryland state senate. Such legislation will be especially helpful to child care programs' start-up efforts, since loans are difficult to secure.
- The Corning Children's Center (Corning, New York), a preschool program that is subsidized by the Corning Glass Works Foundation, is considering expanding to provide two school-based, school-age child care programs. The program hopes to make more efficient use of its present administrative and fiscal structure by serving more children.
- The Gannett Foundation (Rochester, New York), made a forty thousand dollar award to a Sioux Falls, South Dakota, program, to be used for vans, buses, and a project coordinator. This should increase existing services.

General Operating Support

- The Connecticut legislature initiated an "Innovative Grants Program" in 1980, which provided one hundred thousand dollars to support some of the start-up and operating costs of certain SACC programs in Connecticut. Some of these programs used school space; others were located in community centers and youth-serving agencies.
- Four local jurisdictions in the Washington, D.C., area (Alexandria, Arlington County, and Fairfax County, Virginia, and the District of Columbia) provide partial support—in the amount of $2,750,000—for school-age care serving three thousand children. All jurisdictions ask parents to pay some part of the cost.[10]
- In the state of Florida, cuts in federal funds for day care in 1982 and 1983 were not passed along to providers; the state made up these cuts through general revenues. A sales tax was passed by the state legislature as one way of producing monies that would fill the gap. Projections for 1983-84 and 1984-85 suggest that there will be an increase in state monies earmarked for day care.
- What began as a ten thousand dollar loan to the Day Care Center of New Canaan, Connecticut, to help ease cash flow problems has since become a line item in the town budget. The town of New Canaan now subsidizes the day care center through an in-kind donation of space and a yearly allocation that is used to augment the SACC program.

Support for Parents' Costs

- The state block grant monies that provide tuition support to the East End Children's Workshop in Portland, Maine, require a 25 percent local "seed money" match. In this case, fifty-five thousand dollars—a combination of public and private funds—was secured in 1983 by the program from the city of Portland, the United Way, the county, and the State of Maine General Fund. Without a dramatic increase in United Way funding during the past several years, this program would not have survived.
- By collaborating with the United Cerebral Palsy (UCP) Extended Day Care Project, the Madison After School Day Care Association (Madison, Wisconsin) is able to provide tuition support to handicapped children in its eight SACC programs. Children who are ineligible for state or local government subsidy may be totally or partially funded by UCP. UCP also provides resource teachers to help with hard-to-place

children and to train SACC staff to work with special needs children.

- Town meeting in Amherst, Massachusetts, voted to allocate a budget line item of four thousand dollars in 1982 and three thousand dollars in 1983 to support the costs of school-age child care. These funds subsidize families that are unable to pay the entire fee for the school-age program and are not eligible for government monies. In addition, to support the sliding-fee scales for the SACC full-day summer program (Adventure playgrounds), the town allocated seventy-four hundred dollars in 1982 and eight thousand dollars in 1983.
- The Hephzibah Children's Association in Oak Park, Illinois, is one of five partners in a resale shop that brings the program approximately fifteen thousand dollars per year. These funds make possible a sliding-fee scale that helps to pay care costs for the low- and middle-income families who are unable to afford the full fee and are not eligible for other subsidies. Hephzibah board members do their share of staffing the shop as part of their volunteer efforts on behalf of Hephzibah.

6 STATE REGULATION OF SACC PROGRAMS*

There is no evidence that children need less protection now than in the past. On the contrary, the need for protection through licensing continues. For example, there appears to be an increase in reported cases of sexual abuse in unlicensed child care. With the dramatic growth in numbers of children whose mothers work, there is a great need for effective regulation of the growth of new day care centers and of family day care homes. The child development field as a whole needs to gain a greater understanding of the issues in regulation, and a greater consensus about effective strategies for the eighties.
(Gwen G. Morgan, "Regulating Early Childhood Programs in the Eighties," in *Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education.*)

The Function and Importance of State Regulation

State regulation of child care programs has two fundamental purposes: to require programs to meet basic conditions under which children are safe and free from harm, and to encourage an improved quality of care.

By providing minimum standards, regulations for child care insure the public at large and the consumer in particular that a certain baseline exists—a "floor" below which no program may legally operate. The term "regulation" covers a number of categories, including (but not limited to):

- Licensing
- Building/safety codes
- Health codes
- Zoning

Within each of these categories, regulations are set and enforced—although usually by different governing bodies, such as departments of social services, city housing departments, health departments, and zoning boards. In addition, there are other forms of regulation that may be aimed at quality above the baseline. One current example is "credentialling"—which means that in order to be approved, a day care program or its staff (or both) must meet certain requirements that have been defined as linked with a higher level of quality than those necessary simply for licensing. At the present time, The National Association for the Education of Young Children is developing and instituting such credentials for early childhood programs. The Child Development Associate (CDA) is another example of a credential that is in use for child care staff and

*Much of the information contained in this chapter is drawn from three sources: *A Licensing Report on School-Age Child Care Centers* prepared by Gerri L. Bugg for the School Age Child Care Project, July 1980, which drew heavily on the 1979 *Day Care Licensing Study* prepared by Lawrence Johnson Associates; a survey of all fifty states and the District of Columbia conducted by Judy Paquette, administrative assistant, School-Age Child Care Project, June 1983 (see summary chart in Appendix C); and an analysis of school-age child care regulations of selected states.

is more stringent than most state licensing requirements.

At present there is no set of national regulations for child care; each state is left to make its own decisions about what to regulate, how to regulate, and whom to regulate. (See Appendix C for listing of state licensing agencies.)

Although every state licenses child care in some way, there is wide variation in the forms licensing takes. Some states (Minnesota and Tennessee, for example) carefully define different types of child care (family day care homes; day care centers for infants, preschoolers, school-age children; group homes; and care for special needs children) and write different regulations that apply to each one. Others have one set of regulations, with slight variations for the different forms of care or ages of children or both. Still others regulate some forms but not others. Since the issues in regulating the different forms of child care are complex, for the purposes of this report we will focus our attention solely on *group child care programs for school-age children.*

The Cost of Regulation Affects the Cost to Programs

In considering what standards to put into effect, the impact of cost to both state and programs cannot be minimized. In fact, there is a direct link between finances and regulation in much the same way as there is a direct link between cost and quality. More stringent requirements—for example, higher ratios, smaller group sizes—cost more. It is important in setting a balance of realistic minimum state regulations that these regulations can be afforded, can be adhered to, and are adequately enforced.

Another connection between finances and regulation has to do with the costs of developing, implementing, and overseeing the regulations by the different state agencies involved. When state licensing funds are cut, fewer day care licensors must administer larger territories. As a result, many states are changing their administrative procedures so that licensing visits occur less frequently. State personnel are making fewer and fewer regular visits to individual programs—often coming in when complaints have been filed or when crises occur. Minnesota, for example, has extended the term of day care licenses from one year to two. In addition, although the number of day care centers *grew* 14 percent from July 1977 to July 1982, the state inspection staff *dropped* 14 percent.[1]

Current Practices in Regulation

The way a child care center is defined varies considerably from state to state, and there is even greater variation where school-age child care is concerned. States seem to take one of three approaches to the writing of child care regulations: (1) very minimal regulations and recommendations covering only areas that would seem to threaten the safety of children (punishment, health, nutrition); (2) the addition of regulations that include short provisions in some of the "softer" areas—possibly a few lines on program, or a statement requiring a staff training plan; and (3) detailed provisions in all areas, especially in staff:child ratios, staff qualifications, and programming.

A close look at the regulatory practices and licensing requirements that are currently in effect for SACC programs nationwide reveals that there are some common trends. Many states do not license programs that: operate for less than a certain number of hours per day; are operated by public schools or religious institutions; label themselves summer and/or day camps; and consider their primary purpose to be education. More than half of the state regulations do include programming requirements specific to the school-age program (Missouri, for example, has a regulation explicitly suggesting that school-age children have opportunities to leave the center for classes and clubs.[2]). The one area that the majority of states seem to agree upon is that of indoor space per child—forty states have set a minimum of thirty-five square feet per child as their standard.

In what areas does regulation vary widely from state to state? There are two striking examples. The first is staff:child ratios—which range among the states from 1:8 to 1:30 for children ages five to fourteen. The second example is staff qualifications, which also vary widely from the single minimum requirement (sixteen years of age and high school diploma) to extreme differentiation in experience, education, and age requirements according to the staff position (for example, assistant teacher, teacher, head teacher, etc.). Other areas in which regulation varies are group size, minimum number of staff required, and the program to be provided for school-age children.

Issues and Problems

Some states do have regulations specifically governing SACC programs, with provisions tailored to the needs of the older child. In the majority of states, regulations are largely based on the needs of preschool children, with a few additional provisions that refer to school-age child

care. This fact creates—or contributes to—a number of issues and problems:

- Many of the regulations governing SACC programs are geared for younger children and are therefore inappropriate and often costly (mandatory naps, fenced-in outdoor play areas, children within sight of a staff member at all times, for example).
- Enforcement of regulations is the responsibility of licensing staff who may have little or no knowledge of and experience with school-age programs.
- The lack of clarity in defining what a school-age child care program is—knowing what logically falls under regulation and what doesn't (for example, karate school, Girls' or Boys' Clubs for drop-in activities, after-school tutoring)—and the wide variety of program types (recreation, arts, developmental, tutorial) and hours of service makes regulating school-age programs especially confusing. (Some sort of certification might be one alternative for those programs that do not fall into a licensable category.)
- School-based programs (generally those not administered by a school system) may be required to conform to regulations different from those which apply to the same space for the same children during school hours.
- State licensing agencies are just beginning to address the question of staff qualifications for SACC and to develop some agreement on criteria to be included in licensing standards.
- Most SACC programs have teacher-directors, but regulations often do not address this.
- The lack of communication among the several state and local regulatory agencies that may all be involved in the licensing process results in inconsistency, delays in licensing, and duplication of efforts.

Discussion

School-age child care programs should not be over-regulated, or forced to conform to inappropriate regulations. School-age programs must be able to provide environments for children which are both relaxed and which also offer plenty of opportunities to explore—both within and outside the actual program location. But, without *some* basic regulations, it is difficult to assure parents that SACC programs are safe and accountable.

The challenge in writing regulations is in using language that is both specific enough to be enforceable and general enough to allow diversity and creativity; the licensing process should strike a balance between these two criteria.

Since it is beyond the scope of this *Policy Report* to examine fully all areas that are presently regulated, we have chosen to treat the more important ones—the areas of regulation that impact most directly on cost and quality.

Programming Requirements Specific to SACC

In the regulations of the twenty-nine states which specify programming requirements for school-age child care, some states provide only minimal requirements, such as discipline. Other states make a more lengthy statement: a paragraph or a few sentences in the regulations on what the program should be, often indicating that a program plan should be on file. Michigan's regulations, for example, contain general requirements, plus additional provisions for school-age care:

> *Rule 106. (1) A center shall provide a program of daily activities and relationships that offers opportunities for the developmental growth of each child in the following areas:*
> *(a) Physical development, including large and small muscle.*
> *(b) Social development, including communication skills.*
> *(c) Emotional development, including positive self-concept.*
> *(d) Intellectual development.*
> *(2) A center shall permit parents to visit the program for the purpose of observing their children during daily activities.*
> *(3) A center operating with children in attendance for 5 or more continuous hours per day shall provide for daily outdoor play, unless prevented by inclement weather conditions.*
> *(4) A center shall provide each child in attendance for 5 or more continuous hours a day with an opportunity to rest.*
> *(5) A child shall not be in care for more than 12 hours a day.*
> *PART 3. ADDITIONAL PROVISIONS FOR CARE OF CHILDREN 6 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER*
> *Rule 303. A center shall provide a program that has opportunities for each child:*
> *(a) To plan, carry out, and evaluate his or her own activities.*
> *(b) To experience a diversity of activities*

within the center, the center neighborhood, and the total community.
(c) To participate in recreational activities, including sports appropriate to age.[3]

A third group of states spells out detailed requirements that pertain to activities, materials, parent/family involvement, and respect for cultural heritage. Some regulations, such as Hawaii's, provide exceptional detail—and thus give more guidance to program planners and facilitate measurement by licensors. Some states go so far as to list suggested materials for school-age children in the appendix to their requirements; others, like Tennessee, have a required/recommended structure and place their more specific program points under the "recommended" heading. A cluster of states have flexible and activity-choice-oriented regulations. These regulations indicate that programs should be conducive to a relaxed, self-directed, nonacademic atmosphere with opportunities that include recreation, group and solitary play, homework, crafts, field trips, and sports. States in this third group express in general language that programs for school-age children should enrich and supplement school experiences as well as develop community awareness.

Age Range of Children and Staff:Child Ratios

The ages of children and numbers of staff caring for them are directly related in most state regulations. A program's staff:child ratio is the number of children per adult caregiver. Higher, or more stringent, staff:child ratios are those with fewer children per adult. For example, a ratio of 1:8 is higher or more stringent than a ratio of 1:15.

Regarding the link between ratios and ages, states either clump all school-age children together and list one ratio for all; or provide different ratios for different age groupings; or, in a few cases, have no requirement in this area.

The great majority of regulations for SACC apply to the five-year-old child; the remainder, to age six.

There is a great deal of variation among the states with regard to age breakdowns, although there are some commonalities. Of the states that have different ratios for different ages, many have one ratio for five-year-olds only and another, less stringent, ratio for everyone else. A few states go a step further and set down three different ratios, as in the following example from North Dakota:

age 5-6	1:12
age 6-10	1:16
age 10-14	1:20

Ratios among states do vary widely, and because of different age groupings, it is almost impossible to attempt averages or comparisons. Staff:child ratios range from 1:8 to 1:30 in the states surveyed; ratios cluster at 1:10, 1:15, 1:20, and 1:25. (See Apppendix C)

Maximum Group Size and Minimum Staff Required

The findings of the 1979 National Day Care Study strongly linked group size to program quality.[4] Although this study was conducted on center-based preschool programs, our field research supports this finding for SACC programs. School-age children have already spent the bulk of their day in a large group at school, so they can benefit from the smaller groups of a day care center.

The majority of states do not require a limit on the number of children in a group. In eighteen states, maximum group size ranges from 20 to 40. Those states that have more than one staff:child ratio also have more than one group size. Those that have one ratio also have one maximum group size requirement.

Twenty-five states have a minimum staff:child requirement: no matter how many children are enrolled or in attendance, two adults must be present at all times. A few states, such as Michigan, make this a bit less stringent: "A minimum of 2 staff members, 1 of whom is a caregiver, shall be present in the center *whenever 7 or more children are present.*"[5] [Author's note: italics the author's]

Minimum Staff Qualifications and Caregiver Training

The story is told of a young man who was a counselor in a neighborhood playground—adored by all of the children. His qualifications? He had been a clown with the circus and a sailor in the merchant marine, and he brought all kinds of exciting knowledge and experience to his work at the playground. But he did not meet the qualifications for staff in the licensing regulations used to regulate SACC programs and was fired. Such a person *should* be able to work as a staff member—*along with others*, some of whom should have the "formal training" that this young man lacked.

Wide variation exists in this requirement; some state regulations seem to address only basic requirements. The state of Florida, for example, requires that a criminal records check be done on child care staff "as indicated"; that a license be refused if staff habitually use alcohol to excess or illegally use drugs. Operators and staff must meet age qualifications and must obtain a health

assessment statement that includes a tuberculin test result.

Other states' regulations for personnel cover caregiver age, personal qualities, training, and experience and suggest guidelines for each. Hawaii's comprehensive regulations list many possible combinations of training and experience for each of the different staff roles (director, teacher, aide). In this way, the requirements acknowledge that there is no *one* avenue, but rather many paths to the same goal—that of guaranteeing that staff meet minimum standards of quality. In addition, they make specific recommendations for SACC caregivers, both in terms of prior group experience with school-age children and in training in a variety of related fields.

Many state regulations fail to even mention the topic of in-service staff training. When mentioned, it is usually vague and either requires that a certain number of hours be spent in "staff development activities" or that a plan for staff training be on file at the center.*

Space: Indoor and Outdoor

> *If there is any one area of program design that is inextricably linked to all the others, it is the space you choose for the program... the space you choose will affect the types of activities and experiences that are available to children in the program, either because of the constraints of the actual physical space or because of the program's accessibility to other local community resources that might be used by the program.*[6]

Must/should SACC programs have exclusive use of their licensed space, or may it be shared? What if the program is mobile and uses different indoor space at different times? Must outdoor facilities be adjacent to the program, or may a nearby park or field be counted?

What about SACC programs that use a different space each day—must each space be licensed? Some programs are located in halls and very small spaces and also have the use of available rooms in the same building—this may be in schools, Ys, or community centers, for example. Should this be permitted?

Regulations regarding indoor space range from twenty square feet per child to forty square feet per child—with most programs requiring thirty-five square feet per child of usable, primary space. Some states provide very general provisions; others are more specific.

North Dakota's regulation is an example of a general requirement: "Work areas, unused space, and areas which are not exclusively used for child care center purposes shall not be considered when computing minimum space."[7]

In contrast, Missouri has drafted these explicitly detailed regulations:

> *Indoor space.*
> *There shall be at least thirty-five (35) square feet of usable floor space for each preschool and school-age child in the licensed capacity...*
> *If a day care center for infants and toddlers is in a unit auxiliary to a day care center for older children, their play and sleeping space, bathrooms, equipment, supplies and staff shall be separate from those used by the preschool and school-age children.*
> *There shall be storage space for play materials used by the children, some of which is accessible to the children on low shelves.*
> *There shall be individual space for each child's clothing and other personal belongings, which is accessible to the child.*
> *When the day care center cares for school-age children, there shall be space apart from the preschool program equipped for their use.*
> *Space shall be provided for office equipment, the making and keeping of records, and for transaction of business. This space shall not interfere with the children's play area.*
> *An area for staff breaks, separate from the children, shall be provided.*[8]

Few if any regulations on indoor space specify whether shared space or auxiliary spaces (gymnasium, home economics room) are to be included or excluded from the total area to be licensed.

Minimum outdoor play space regulations range from 30 square feet per child to 100 square feet per child, with a majority of programs requiring 75 square feet and the remainder scattered within the range.

Some states require a *separate* outdoor space for use by school-agers that will not interfere with

* Required or otherwise, training should be ongoing and should focus on programming for the school-age child. Unfortunately, federal funds for training day care personnel have been cut. But in at least one state, Massachusetts, school-age staff training will be provided by the state to state-funded programs in 1984. SACC staff may generate their own training or special grants may be available to support training—but these are scatter shot approaches and are usually not institutionalized as annual practice.

preschoolers (in combined programs); easy and safe access to the outdoor area, and a fence enclosing the space. A few states regulate outdoor equipment and discuss outdoor opportunities as a part of their activities requirements. Some states have provisions similar to the following:

> *There shall be a minimum of seventy-five (75) square feet per child of outdoor play area at time of use, with sufficient area available to accomodate one-third (1/3) the licensed capacity at one (1) time.*
> *There shall always be adult supervision when the children are outside, with the ratio of children to staff not to exceed one and one-half (1½) times the indoor ratio of children to staff.*
> *The play area shall be safe, suitable for children's activities, free of hazards such as broken glass or other debris, well-maintained and shall have good drainage.*[9]

Other Issues

The issues of building, health and safety regulations, and zoning are usually part of the regulatory process. In general, these are determined and enforced by local jurisdictions — towns, cities, counties — and can be different across jurisdictional boundaries. Since most licensing codes include certification and/or inspection by these local authorities, it is often at this juncture that SACC programs experience difficulties.

In some communities, building codes for day care centers treat infants and school-agers the same. For example, regulations may prohibit care from taking place above the first floor of a building.

Zoning also presents similar problems. An extreme example involves a SACC program in one of the Brookline, Massachusetts, elementary schools, that, due to expansion, was slated to move to a section of the school located in a residential zone. In this case, the program was forced to appeal for a zoning variance (an expensive, time consuming, and often very political process). One New England SACC program lost two houses it was attempting to purchase because at the zoning hearing the neighbors were vocal opponents.

Recommendations

Regulations should address SACC issues. To guide both programs *and* licensing staff in determining quality in programming, regulations might address the following elements, adapted from *School-Age Child Care: An Action Manual*, which any program can adapt to its individual characteristics, resources in the community, and children's needs and interests. Program planners and staff should:

1. Capitalize on the interests of the children
2. Consider the needs of children of different ages and stages
3. Consider the range of experience an activity can provide
4. Use the community as much as possible
5. Capitalize on the myriad of opportunities that present themselves for informal, social learning
6. Build upon the special talents and interests of the staff
7. Allow for spontaneity and serendipity
8. Agree upon and communicate clear, consistent expectations and limits to the children
9. Take an integrated, total approach to planning and carrying out the program
10. Balance the day's activities so that there are structured and unstructured times, teacher-directed and child-initiated experiences, and a range of activity options as well.[10]

Staff:child ratios, group size, and program size should be coordinated. We recommend a group size of sixteen to twenty-four children, with a staff:child ratio of from 1:8 to 1:12. Programs that group kindergarten children separately should have lower ratios and smaller group sizes — the higher ratios are for the older children. There should be a minimum of two staff at all times. For this to be financially feasible, size and ratio must be coordinated.

> *The tradeoffs with both staff:child ratio and group size revolve around costs and quality. Larger groups with lower ratios may certainly be less expensive, but they minimize the individualized attention and the activity choices open to children. Smaller groups with more stringent ratios cost more, but allow for more staff attention to each child and a broader range of activities.*[11]

Example:

Age of Children	*Group Size*	*Staff:Child Ratio*
5 years	16-24	1:8
5-14 years	20-24	1:10-1:12
8-14 years	24-30	1:10-1:12

Staff should be qualified; training should be ongoing. We recommend that staff have training in at least

one of the following areas: child development, early childhood education, elementary education, child guidance, physical education, recreation, child psychology, the arts, and leisure studies.

The National Day Care Study strongly linked caregiver training to program quality:

> *Child-related education/training for caregivers shows a moderately strong and consistent relationship to NDCS measures of quality care but little relationship to costs.... Experience and formal education show no important relationship to any NDCS measures of quality and only a slight relationship to center costs.*[12]

For school-age staff, such training is essential because of the lack of preservice programs that prepare people to work as SACC caregivers. Training should be ongoing and should focus on programming for the school-age child, taking into account the mixed-age group and the special needs of children after a long school day.

In terms of the teacher-director position, we feel that the person being considered should meet *both* the criteria for the director *and* for the teacher positions as a way of insuring that the teacher-director have both administrative and teaching skills and experience.

The question of whether persons under the age of eighteen should care for school-age children seems to be up for discussion in many SACC programs. This is well handled in the licensing regulations of the state of Texas:

> *a. Persons under 18 years old who have a high school diploma may be counted in the staff:child ratio.*
> *b. Students under 18 years old who are enrolled in child care-related career programs approved by the Texas Education Agency or other State- or Federally-approved programs, or who are on summer vacation from career programs, may be given responsibility for children and counted in the staff:child ratio.*
> *c. A person 14 through 17 years old may work under the direct supervision of a qualified staff person but cannot be counted in the staff: child ratio.*[13]

The staff should meet together for at least two hours per month. A training plan should be developed that includes attendance at meetings, conferences, classes, and workshops—both in the center and in the community. Staff should participate in at least two hours per month of such activities. (This may be averaged over the course of a year.) Training should be in areas that are in some way relevant to the work performed by the staff member: first aid, games, school-age child development, parent/teacher communication, curriculum, etc.

Specifications should be set for minimum indoor and outdoor space; exclusive use. No matter where it is located, we recommend that each SACC program have the *exclusive* use of some portion of its total space. Programs that *do not* have any "home space" indicating where they will be located should arrange regular access to suitable alternative space. A minimum of thirty-five square feet per child of indoor space should be set.

The following excerpt from the draft of proposed revised regulations for Minnesota provides helpful language:

> *c. Building space limitations. The licensed capacity of the center shall be limited according to the amount of primary space. A minimum of 35 square feet of primary space must be available for each child.*
> *1. Primary space does not include hallways, stairways, closets, utility areas, toilet rooms, kitchens and floor space located under equipment or materials not used by children or under permanent bed or crib space or under permanent or built-in equipment.*
> *2. Up to 25 percent of the primary space may be covered by equipment used by children. Space covered by equipment in excess of 25% must be deducted from primary space.*[14]

For outdoor space, seventy-five square feet per child—which seems to be the national norm—is our recommendation. If the outdoor space is not at the same location as the indoor space, a written plan that specifies access to this space should be presented to the licensing agency for approval.

Conclusion

We recomend that regulations for SACC should do the following:

- Reflect the special nature of SACC. Children need to be able to be out in the community taking part in local opportunities. Programs in already regulated facilities should not be doubly regulated, but should meet the standards of the licensing agency.
- Take into account the cost factors.

- Take into account the diverse nature of sponsorship. Programs are run in Girls' and Boys' Clubs, community schools, and religious institutions, as well as in more traditionally recognized child care agencies.

Drafting such regulations can be done if states develop processes to review existing regulations and to make necessary changes that would focus on SACC and on related special issues. For example, this was done recently in Minnesota when a committee was set up that included licensors, providers, consumers, and others. The regulations that evolved are ones that providers feel they can live with and licensors know that they can enforce.

7 WHAT CAN POLICYMAKERS DO?

This *Policy Report* emphasizes state and local policy action. Local action, we have observed, can respond immediately to community needs. Furthermore, local efforts have become more significant in view of cuts in federal and state social service funding. The experience of local planning groups has shown that collaboration between interested individuals and groups representing government, industry, and social services does work, and often results in positive benefits. However, these local and state initiatives can only go so far. There *is* a role to be played by the federal government as well. This includes increasing direct support for low-income families so they can afford school-age care and providing funds to community programs now laboring under increasing financial constraints. Federal and regional government can act as facilitators, bringing together agencies, institutions, and organizations that have a stake in improving school-age child care. No one government agency or program need be singly responsible. Instead, support can and should reflect the full range of human services: child development, education, manpower, community services, health, and so on. *School-age child care should be regarded as a preventive service which may well be an investment against future problems requiring even greater government intervention and expenditures.*

The Range of Options

A 1982 publication of The Council of State Governments reports that: "State involvement in the extended school day care issue has been along a continuum ranging from peripheral interest to major funding. The level of involvement often reflects the amount of political pressure brought to bear by parents, education officials, and other interest groups."[1] The same statement could also apply to the involvement of localities.

Working together with child advocacy groups and concerned citizens, state and local policymakers have facilitated the development of new SACC programs and insured the continuation of existing programs. Here are some examples:

- Local legislators supported a change in local zoning laws in one community to accommodate the provision of school-age child care by churches which, because of their location in residential zones, would have had to seek a different (and therefore less desirable) zoning status (Fort Worth, Texas area).
- A mayor helped to find a stable administrative base for a program which would have folded without help (Northampton, Massachusetts).
- A state Governor's Office of Children and Youth conducted a statewide survey of parents and children to determine how best to provide school-age child care services (Hawaii).
- Corporate executives in a large city joined together with an advocacy group to form a task force on school-age child care and created a fund which helps subsidize—and develop—school-age child care programs in the city's public schools (Houston, Texas).

The policy strategies described here are not "pie-in-the-sky" solutions with little basis in reality. These examples have been selected precisely because they are replicable by others who may adapt them to meet the needs in their own communities and states. In every case, these solutions are practical responses to dilemmas fairly common in the field of school-age child care as it attempts to become a highly visible—and viable—service.

Recommendations

Policy action in school-age child care should concentrate on:

- learning about parents' demand for school-age child care,
- increasing the supply of services, and remediating or initiating policies in order to reduce barriers to development and delivery,
- expanding financial support so that more low-income families can use services, and
- supporting or conducting research on the short- and long-term effects of school-age child care on children's development and on the effects on young children of prolonged periods of self-care.

Learning about parents' demand for school-age child care

- Initiate studies on need and demand. Surveys could be conducted by the *local or state* education agency or by other governmental agencies (health, city planning, human services). These efforts can be assisted by community action groups and agencies (Junior League, League of Women Voters, business associations, child care resource and referral agencies, community foundations and funding agencies). Employers can include need for SACC in surveys of employees' child care needs. At all government levels, studies could be conducted on special populations of children—children with special needs, children in rural poverty settings, migrant workers' children, and others. *State and local policy should be developed to address the right to equal access to school-age child care programs and services by children with special needs.* (See References for *Child Care Needs of Exceptional Children,* a report of California's Child Development Advisory Committee, from which this recommendation is derived.)
- Initiate or support child care information and referral agencies to gather data on parents' preferences and demand for school-age services, and to link parents and providers at the local level.
- Study the existing supply to determine the extent and capacity of existing services, gaps in geographic distribution, and populations served.
- At the national, state, and local levels, mount a public education media campaign on the risks to young children of having no supervision, and the solutions that are available.

Increasing the supply and remediating barriers to development

- Explore options for collaboration between public and private sectors; for example, relationships between provider agencies, parent groups, and public schools and municipal recreation departments and housing authorities.
- Research state and local statutes and other policy mechanisms which may impede the development of SACC services, and improve or create more supportive policies (for example, building and zoning codes, state education policy on the use of public schools for day care). (See Appendix D for model state enabling legislation.)
- Research existing state day care regulations for applicability and appropriateness to school-age child care, with regard to programs, family day care, and group day care homes. Regulatory bodies in the state should communicate, in order to increase coordination among the various agencies and departments. (See Appendix C for chart of states' school-age child care licensing practices.)
- Explore options for staff training by community colleges, universities, and other training centers.

Expanding use by low-income families

- Increase spending for school-age child care under the human services block grant (formerly Title XX of the Social Security Act); advocate for increased attention to school-age child care at the state level through the HSBG allocations process; raise reimbursement rates for family day care providers to encourage them to serve school-age children; expand the qualifications for sliding fees to include parents with marginal incomes.
- Advocate for state child care tax credits and for refundability provisions at federal and state levels.
- Support reforms in IRS policy that will grant tax-exempt status to child care programs under the

general category of providing child care to working parents and that will provide general access to their services.

- Encourage interest of and seek support from employers on the issue of school-age child care for employees' children. Encourage employers to participate in funding community programs and services. (See Resources for references to Houston, Texas, Institute for Families; Orlando, Florida, 4-C's employee assurance plan; and the Corporate Child Development Fund for Texas.)
- Initiate or support legislative innovations in: state-guaranteed loans for start-up and expansion of child care facilities; tax incentives for employer-supported child care; and incentive grants to stimulate community-based initiatives in school-age child care. (See Appendix D for summary of House Bill 1531, "The School Facilities Child Care Act".)

Develop a research agenda to examine

- The effects, both short- and long-term, on young children of prolonged periods of self-care in terms of emotional effects and serious risks (for example, injuries and deaths due to fire, accident, crime).
- The effects on young children of various organized school-age child care services, using such measures as self-esteem, school performance, peer relationships.
- The cost-effectiveness of school-age services as a preventive measure to reduce the later costs associated with adolescent crime, adolescent pregnancy, and school failure.

Conclusion

While some states and localities have taken impressive strides towards improving and expanding school-age child care, policymakers at every level need to expand their efforts if we are to assure that each child who needs school-age child care will have it. Individuals and groups must collaborate to solve the policy problems that may be impediments to the growth and affordability of school-age child care. We must reach beyond the established boundaries between disciplines, ideologies, and institutions in order to accomplish this goal, and to create safe and enriching alternatives for our children.

APPENDIX A

Partnerships

Each of these models represents a collaboration between government and schools, parents and schools, or community agency and schools.

A County Agency Collaborates with the Public Schools

Fairfax County School-Age Child Care Program
Fairfax, Virginia

From 1974 until 1979, Fairfax County's SACC Centers were administered under the auspices of the school board. In 1979, the administration for the twenty-six school-based centers became the shared responsibility of the County Board of Supervisors and the County Office for Children. The program is primarily supported through parent fees (60-70 percent) while the remaining cost is the county's subsidy for low-income families. Additional financial support comes in the form of extensive in-kind contributions. The public schools provide at no cost the exclusive use of at least one classroom per school, plus utilities and janitorial service. The county government provides numerous support services through the offices of Mental Health, Personnel, Libraries, Social Services, Purchasing, etc.

A Parent-Run Program in the Public Schools

Brookline Extended Day Programs
Brookline, Massachusetts

Since 1972, parents and public school officials have worked closely together to establish what is now a town-wide system of parent-administered, school-based child care programs. The programs are funded primarily by parent fees and some funding from the State Department of Social Services. The school system's financial committment includes one hour of custodial time, space, and utilities.

Throughout the years, the school committee maintained a supportive posture toward the after-school programs. Initially, the school committee recognized the programs only as autonomous, private groups requesting use of school space. Formal approval was granted in the form of written policy guidelines, based on a general support of community use of schools and a precedent that was set by a local, private, music school which had operated in the elementary schools for years.

Over time, problems involving licensing requirements and zoning codes prompted the school committee to reevaluate its relationship with the programs. Eventually the programs were officially placed under the umbrella of the school system. (Administrative and programmatic control

remained in the hands of the parents.) This move helped to firmly establish the viability and importance of the programs in the minds of Brookline's teachers, principals, administrators, and the community at large.

A Nonprofit Agency Collaborates with the Public Schools

Hephzibah Children's Association
Oak Park, Illinois

Hephzibah Children's Association, a well-established child care agency which has served Oak Park's children for eighty years, and the Oak Park Public Schools jointly participate in the operation of the district's three SACC programs. The schools provide space, utilities, custodial services, and transportation, and Hephzibah administers the programs.

Aside from the obvious advantage of offering a low-cost service to the community, the Oak Park Schools have realized two added benefits: increased enrollment and a vehicle to maintain racial balance. The adoption of a new school policy that permitted children to transfer to different schools within the Oak Park District encouraged more than seventy children to take part in the SACC program during its first year in 1973. More than half were minority children.

A Community Education Department Enters into a Partnership with a Private, Proprietary SACC Program for Young Adolescents

"The Connection"
Acton, Massachusetts

The Connection is an after-school activities program designed specifically for middle and junior high school children. In 1981, its owner-founder proposed an agreement with the Acton-Boxboro Community Education Department stipulating that, in return for the donation of school space, a fully developed administrative and programmatic package, complete with professional staff, equipment, and supplies, would be available.

One year later, both the community and the program's owner were benefiting from the arrangement. The tuition has remained relatively low (two dollars per hour) and the enrollment last year was up to fifty-plus children. The school's in-kind contribution of space has substantially reduced the overhead costs of the program.

School-run Programs

Each of these models represents SACC programs that are either administered under the auspices of the school department itself or by the community education department.

A Community Education Department Runs SACC Programs in a Seven-City School District

The Adventure Club
Robbinsdale Area Schools
Suburban Minneapolis, Minnesota

The Adventure Club is a school-age child care program administered by Community Education and Services of Independent School District 281. Year-round programming is made possible through a cooperative arrangement between the schools and the local YMCA. The Adventure Club and the Y split the programming: the Y takes over during the winter, spring, and summer vacations; the Adventure Club during the academic year.

Adventure Club is primarily supported by parent fees (90 percent). The remaining 10 percent comes from a number of state, county and—especially—city sources. Three of the seven cities in the district set aside from one to four thousand dollars each year to subsidize low-income families. A sliding-fee scale is available to families that need tuition assistance.

Official school support for the Adventure Club and its continued growth is particularly strong among the district's school board members. A Long Range Planning Task Force, convened in the spring of 1982 and comprised of interested parents, received a unanimous vote of support from the school board for its recommendations to continue developing the Adventure Club to make it available to all children of the district.

A School District Offers Extended Day Care as Part of its Voluntary Integration Plan

Extended Day Care Program
Santa Monica-Malibu Unified School District
Santa Monica, California

The Extended Day Care Program (EDC), which was started in the fall of 1980, shows how child care can successfully attract parents to take part voluntarily in the integration effort. Located in four of the most racially imbalanced elementary schools in the Santa Monica-Malibu Unified School District, the EDC program complies with California's law requiring all school districts to take steps toward voluntary integration.

The program requires children to attend the schools where they receive day care. Integration is achieved because school policy requires that children be placed in EDC programs at schools which are not yet racially balanced. Early 1983 enrollment figures indicated substantial waiting lists: forty minority and eighty-two white children were waiting to be placed in the EDC programs, which had a total capacity of approximately 120 slots at four sites.

The EDC program is funded through school district funds and parent fees (based on a sliding-fee scale). Of special note are the qualifications of its professional staff—all are employed directly by the school district and meet certification requirements set by the district and state regulations.

A County-Wide School District Participates in a Mixed-Delivery System for School-Based School-Aged Child Care

After School Care
Office of Vocational, Adult, and Community Education
Dade County Public Schools
Miami, Florida

The Dade County Public Schools collaborate with the YMCA, YWCA, and Dade County Community Schools to provide district-wide, school-based SACC for as many as seven thousand children. The school districts run thirty-three programs, serving between twenty-three and twenty-four hundred children; the YMCA runs thirty-seven; the YWCA runs nine; and the community schools run twenty-five. All the programs are self-supporting and independently administered.

The school-run programs, which opened in the fall of 1982, cost parents fifteen dollars per week. The administrators of the program are seeking additional funding—for subsidies—from the United Way of Dade County and are in the process of developing a sliding-fee scale to encourage broader use. Support from local business has so far been positive. In 1983, the Burger King Corporation began to subsidize the cost of after-school day care for the children of their employees.

APPENDIX B

Three School-Age Child Care Program Models

A close look at the funding of three nonprofit SACC programs illustrates the variations presented by different funding sources.

The programs have important similarities:

- each is nonprofit,
- each services approximately 150-200 children,
- each has been in existence for more than five years and has achieved a certain level of financial and programmatic stability.

The three programs differ, however, in the populations served, administrative auspices, and transportation services offered.

- One program is located in the inner city, serving a primarily low-income population; the other two serve a heterogeneous population.
- One is totally public school-based and pays rent; one is both public school-based and agency-based and pays no rent; the third is totally agency-based.
- One has no transportation costs; one transports most children from school to the program; and one provides some transportaion, the cost of which is shared by the school and the SACC program.

Table B-1 Income and Expense Comparison of Three School-Age Child Care Programs

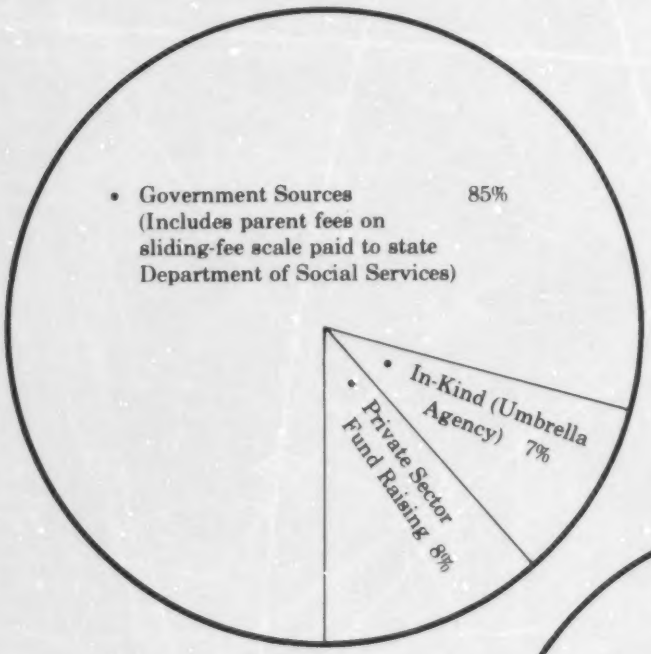
	Program A	Program B	Program C
INCOME (%)			
Government Sources	85	17	40
Private Sector Fund Raising	8	1	24
Parent Fees	--*	82	34
In-Kind	7 (Umbrella Agency +)	0	2
EXPENSES (%)			
Rent	11	12	0
Transportation	10	1	3
Salaries/Fringe	50	72	72
Subtotal:	71	85	75
Amount remaining for program supplies, food, training, equipment, etc.	29	15	25
Total:	100%	100%	100%

* Included in Government Sources figure.

+ Social service agency that runs more than one program.

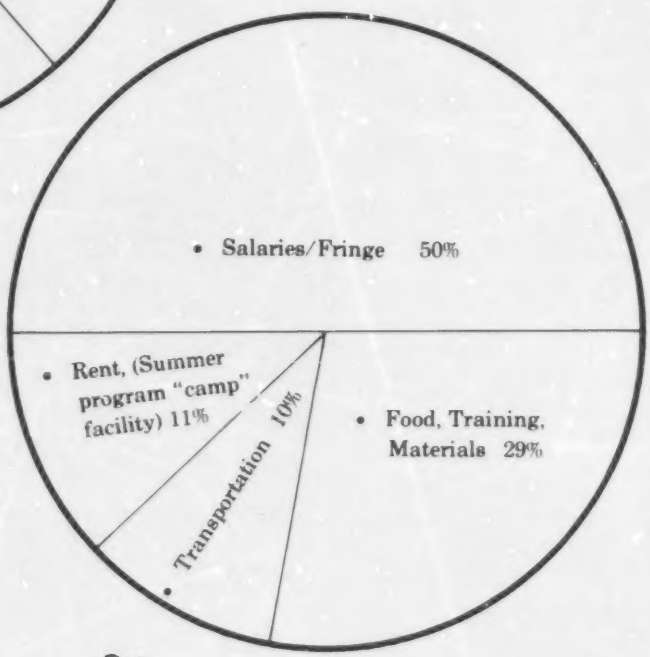
Program A

Program A is located in a large northeastern city and is run by an umbrella social service agency. It serves a low-income, minority population. The program is open from 12:30 to 6:00 p.m. on weekdays and from 8:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. during the summers and school vacations. During the school year, the SACC program is located in the agency's building, therefore, most children are transported, or walk, from area schools. During the summer, the program relocates to a camp about fifteen miles outside the city, and all children and staff are bused to that location. All parents pay tuition based upon a sliding-fee scale, set by the state Department of Social Services, that is *averaged for a year-round fee* and ranges from three to twenty-five dollars per week. The program figures their cost of care to be approximately forty dollars per child per week year round. Clearly, the program needs more income.


• Government Sources 85%
(Includes parent fees on
sliding-fee scale paid to state
Department of Social Services)
• In-Kind (Umbrella Agency) 7%
• Private Sector Fund Raising 8%

INCOME:

- Government Sources 85%
  (Includes parent fees on sliding-fee scale paid to state Department of Social Services)
- Private Sector Fund Raising 8%
- In-Kind (Umbrella Agency) 7%

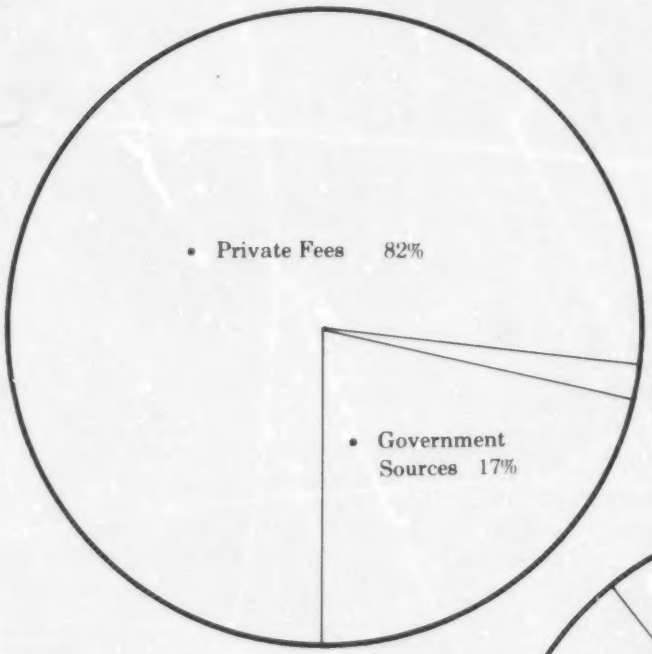


EXPENSES:

- Rent
- (Summer program "camp" facility) 11%
- Transportation 10%
- Salaries/Fringe 50%
- Food, Training, Materials 29%

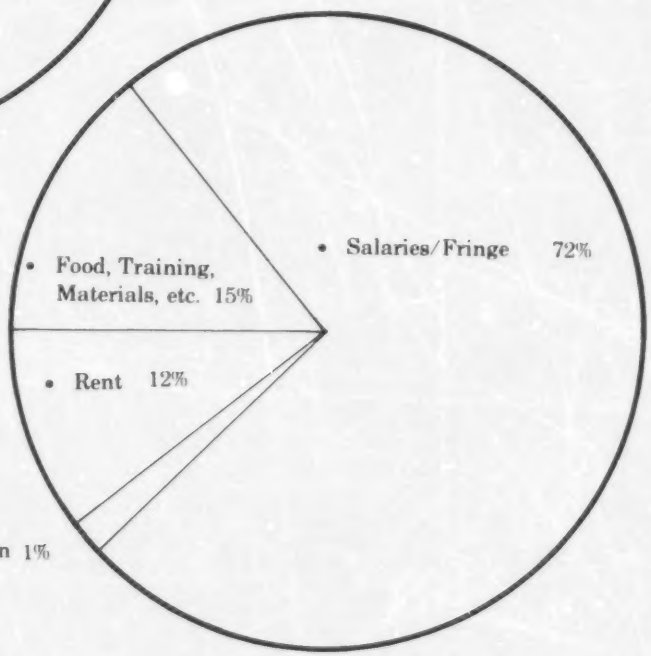
Program B

Program B, which is administered by a parent board, is located in a small mid-western city and leases space from the city schools for its eight school-based programs. Transportation costs are minimal, since children attend the program in their own school or are allowed to transfer to that school. Care is provided on most days from 2:30 p.m. to 5:30 p.m. and all day at selected locations during school and summer vacations. The after-school fee is sixty dollars per week. Low-income families may qualify for either county or city subsidy, which brings their fees down (from six dollars per week to no cost at all). The program estimates its cost of care to be twenty-six dollars a week for the school year and sixty-five dollars per week for vacations. Under the best of circumstances, the program operates at a loss.



INCOME:

- Government Sources 17%
- Private Sector Fund Raising 1%
- Private Fees 82%

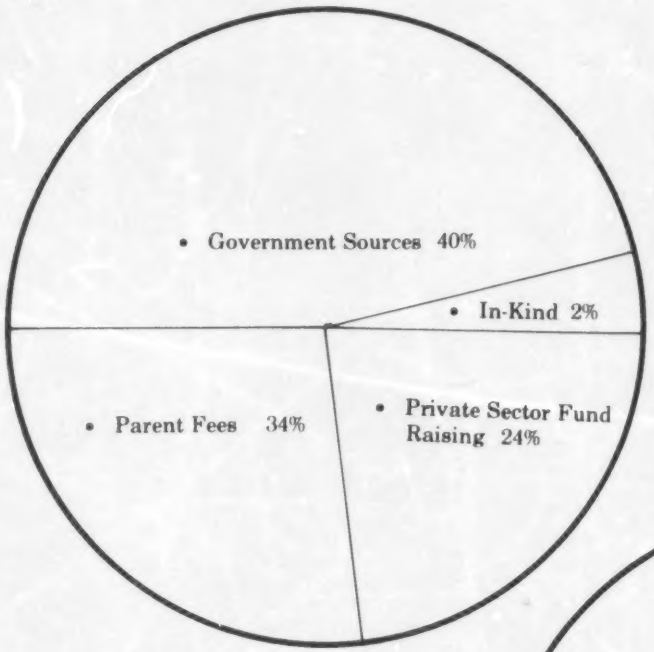


EXPENSES:

- Rent 12%
- Transportation 1%
- Salaries/Fringe 72%
- Food, Training, Materials, etc. 15%

Program C

Located on the outskirts of a large midwestern city, Program C is administered by a non-profit SACC agency and serves a mixed-income population. It provides care at its own facility and, during the school year, at two school-based sites (and three in summer). The program provides full-day care in its own site and uses the school-based sites strictly for after-school programming. Children are granted "permissive transfers" within schools for day care. Administrators consider that the in-kind contribution of transportation, rent, and utilities is an even exchange for the voluntary desegregation provided to the schools vis-a-vis the SACC program. The program has a government-subsidized sliding-fee scale for Title XX-eligible, low-income families. This scale allows for some free care; however, most parents pay between ten and fifteen dollars weekly. Program C also has a privately subsized sliding-fee scale for those ineligible for government funding. They pay from twenty to fifty dollars per week. The program estimates its costs of after-school care to be approximately thirty dollars per week.

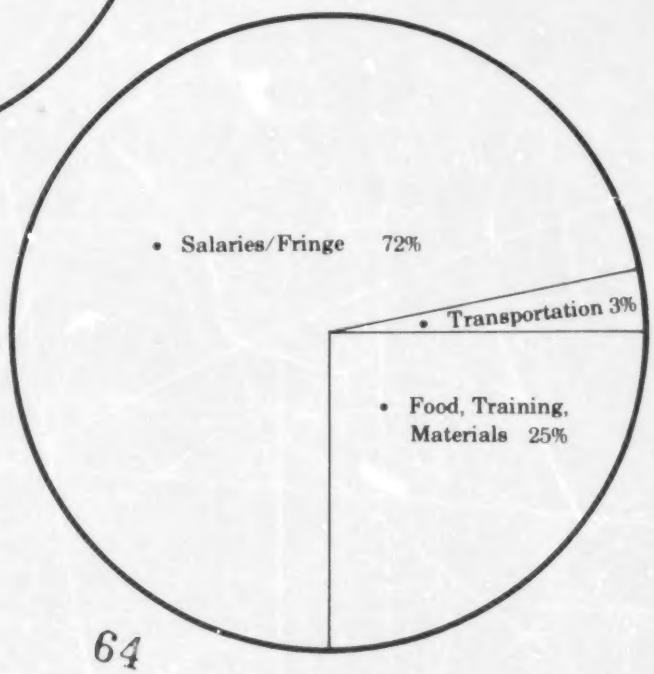


INCOME:

- Government Sources 40%
- Private Sector Fund Raising 24%
- Parent Fees 34%
- In-Kind (Umbrella Agency) 2%
  (Public Schools provide transportation, rent, utilities)

EXPENSES:

- Rent 0%
- Transportation 3%
- Salaries/Fringe 72%
- Food, Training, Materials 25%



APPENDIX C

COMPARISON CHART OF STATE DAY CARE LICENSING STANDARDS

	SCHOOL AGE CHILD CARE LICENSED IN STATE	PROGRAMMING REQUIREMENTS SPECIFIC TO S.A. PROGRAM	SCHOOL AGE STAFFING PATTERNS: AGE RANGE	SCHOOL AGE STAFFING PATTERNS: STAFF/CHILD RATIO	SCHOOL AGE STAFFING PATTERNS: MAXIMUM GROUP SIZE	SCHOOL AGE STAFFING PATTERNS: MINIMUM STAFF REQUIRED	USABLE INDOOR PLAY SPACE SQUARE FOOT PER CHILD	OUTDOOR PLAY SPACE SQUARE FOOT PER CHILD	LICENSING AGENCY	OTHER REGULATIONS: HEALTH	OTHER REGULATIONS: SANITATION	OTHER REGULATIONS: BUILDING	OTHER REGULATIONS: ZONING	OTHER REGULATIONS: FIRE
ALABAMA	X	X	6 yr 6-8 8 •	1:20 1:22 1:25	20 22 25	2*	35	60	DPS	X	X	X	X	X
ALASKA*	X		5 yr 6-10 10-14	1:10 1:15 1:20	-	2	35	70	DHSS	X	X	X		
ARIZONA	X		5-6 •	1:25	-	2	35	75	DHS	X	X	X		^
ARKANSAS	X	X	5 yr 6 •	1:18 1:20			35	75	DHS	X		X	X	X
CALIFORNIA	X		5 •	1:12		-	35	75	DSS	X	X	X	X	X
COLORADO	X	X	5 • K	1:15	-	2	30	75	DSS	X	X	X	X	X
CONNECTICUT	X	X	5 •	•	•	2	30	75	DHS	X	X	X	X	X
DELAWARE	X	X	5-6 6-18	1:20 1:25		-	35	50	DCPS	X	X	X	X	X
FLORIDA	X		5 yr	1:25			20	45	DHRS*	X	X	X	X	X
GEORGIA	X	X	5-6 7 •	1:20 1:25			35	100	DHR			X	X	X
HAWAII*	X	X	5 •	1:20	-	•	20	•	DSHH	X	X	X	X	X
IDAHO	X				-	2	25	75-100	DHW		X		X	X
ILLINOIS*	X	X	5 •	1:25	25	1	35	75	DCFS	X	X			X
INDIANA	X	X	5 yr 6 •	1:15 1:20		-	35	50	DPW	X	X	X	X	X
IOWA	X	X	5-10 10 •	1:15 1:20		-	35	75	DSS	X	X	X		X
KANSAS	X	X	4-6 6-16	1:12 1:16	24 32	-	35	100	DHE	X	X	X	X	X
KENTUCKY	X	X	5-7 8 •	1:15 1:20	-	-	35	-	CHR	X	X			X
LOUISIANA	X		SA	1:25	-	-	35	75	DHHR	X	X			X
MAINE	X	X	5 *.	1:10		2	35	75	DHS	X	X	X		X
MARYLAND	X	X	6-16	1:13	26	2	35		DHMH	X	X	X	X	X
MASSACHUSETTS			5-7	1:15	30	-	35	75	OFC		X	X		
MICHIGAN	X	X	6-12 13-17	1:20 1:30		2*	35	•	DSS	X	X	X		X
MINNESOTA	X	X	5-8 8 •	1:10 1:15	20 30	1	35	75	DPW	X	X	X	X	X
MISSISSIPPI	X		5 •	1:20		-	35	75	DSS	X	X	X	X	X
MISSOURI	X	X	5 yr	1:16	-	-	35	75	DPS	X	X	X	X	X

MONTANA	X	X	6-12	1:14			35	75	DSRS	X	X	X	X	X
NEBRASKA	X		5 yr 6 *	1:12 1:15		2	35	50	DPW	X	X	X	X	X
NEVADA	X			1:20			35	75	DHR/ CCSB	X	X	X	X	X
NEW HAMPSHIRE	X		5-6 6 *	1:18 1:20		2	35	75	DHW	X			X	X
NEW JERSEY						2	30	30	DHS	X	X			
NEW MEXICO	X		5 yr *	1:20			35	60	DHE	X	X	X	X	X
NEW YORK	X	X	5 yr 6-14 10-14	(1:8 (1:9 1:10 1:15	24 18 20 30		35		DSS	X	X	X	X	X
NORTH CAROLINA	X*		5 yr *	1:25			25	75	NCDA/ OCDCL		X	X		X
NORTH DAKOTA	X	X	5-6 6-10 10-14	1:12 1:16 1:20			35	75	DHS	X	X			X
OHIO	X	X	5 yr *	1:20	40	2	35	60	DPW	X	X	X		X
OKLAHOMA	X	X	5-6 6 *	1:15 1:20			35	75	DHS	X	X			X
OREGON	X		5-9 10-14	1:15 1:20	30 40		35	75	DHR	X	X	X	X	X
PENNSYLVANIA	X	X	5-6 S-A	1:10 1:12		2	40	65	DPW					X
RHODE ISLAND	X	X	5 yr 6-14	2:25	25	2 2	35	75	DCF	X				X
SOUTH CAROLINA*	X		5 yr *	1:25			35	75	DSS	X	X	X		X
SOUTH DAKOTA	X		5-6 6-14	1:8 1:10	20	2	35	50	DSS	X	X			X
TENNESSEE	X		5-12	1:25	25	1	30	50	DHS	X	X	X		X
TEXAS	X		5-6 6-14	1:22 1:26	35	1	30	80	DHR	X	X			X
UTAH	X	X	5-6 6-14	1:20 1:25	25	2	35	40	DFS	X	X	X	X	X
VERMONT	X		5 yr 6-15	1:10 1:12		2*	35	75	DSRS	X	X	X		X
VIRGINIA	X	X	5-6 6 *	1:10 1:25		2	25	75	DSS	X	X	X		X
WASHINGTON	X		5 yr *	1:10	20	2	35	75	DSHS	X	X	X		X
WEST VIRGINIA	X	X	5-6 6 *	1:15 1:16		2	35	75	DHS	X				X
WISCONSIN (under 7 only)	X	X	5-6	1:16	32	2	35	75	DHSS	X	X	X	X	X
WYOMING	X		5-6 6 *	1:20 1:25			35	75	DPASS		X			X
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	X	X	5 yr 6-14	1:15 1:15	25 30		35	60	DCRA	X	X	X	X	X

* not specified

*See below by state for additional information or clarification:

ALABAMA: Minimum Staff Required if one if there are less than seven children.

ALASKA: Regulations for day care will be revised during the next fiscal year. School-age child care programming requirements will be added.

CONNECTICUT: Staff/Child Ratio and Maximum Group Size: The Department is working on proposed regulation revisions which will include both.

FLORIDA: Licensing Agency: The Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services licenses in 39 counties and the county designated agencies (usually the Health Departments) license in the remaining 28 counties.

HAWAII: For the purposes of this chart, information was provided which is applicable to programs which care for school-age children only. However, if a child care facility is established to care for both pre-school and school-age children, the more stringent general standards apply to both the pre-school and school age children.

Minimum Staff Required: No constant number, but fluctuates in relation to enrollment.

Outdoor Play Space: Determined on a graduated scale.

ILLINOIS: Revised standards will be published in July, 1983.

MICHIGAN: Minimum Staff Required is one if there are less than seven children.

Outdoor Play Space: When children are in attendance for 5 or more continuous hours a day, a safe outdoor play of not less than 1200 square feet shall be provided.

NORTH CAROLINA: Currently, before a child care arrangement comes under the scope of the licensing law, that program must provide care for more than five children, for more than four hours per day, on a regular basis. Programs that provide only before and/or after school care which children attend for less than four hours per day are not *required* to obtain a license (although some programs do choose to be licensed on a voluntary basis).

SOUTH CAROLINA: Do not regulate any facilities operating less than four hours a day or less than two days a week.

VERMONT: Minimum Staff Required is one if there are less than six children.

Current State Day Care Licensing Offices

Department of Pensions and Security
Division of Day Care and Child Development
Administrative Building
64 North Union Street
Montgomery, Alabama 36130
(205) 832-6398

Department of Health and Social Services
Division of Family and Youth Services
Community Care Licensing Coordinator
Pouch H-05
Juneau, Alaska 99811
(907) 465-3206

Department of Health Services
Bureau of Day Care Facilities - Room 301
1740 West Adams
Phoenix, Arizona 85007
(602) 255-1112

Department of Human Services
Social Services Division
Child Development Unit
P.O. Box 1437
Little Rock, Arkansas 72203
(501) 371-2198

Department of Social Services
Community Care Licensing Division
744 P Street, Mail Station 17-17
Sacramento, California 95814
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Department of Social Services
Child Care Licensing
1575 Sherman Street, Room 420
Denver, Colorado 80203
(303) 866-3362

Department of Health Services
Office of Public Health
79 Elm Street
Hartford, Connecticut 06115
(203) 566-2575

Department of Health and Social Services
Division of Child Protective Services
Licensing Services
1901 North Du Pont Highway
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Department of Health and
Rehabilitative Services
Children, Youth and Families
Program Office
Quality Assurance Unit
1317 Winewood Boulevard
Tallahassee, Florida 32301
(904) 488-4900

Department of Human Resources
Day Care Licensing
878 Peachtree Street, NE
Atlanta, Georgia 30309
(404) 894-5688

Department of Social Services and Housing
Day Care and Licensing Child Placement
P.O. Box 339
Honolulu, Hawaii 96809
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Department of Health and Welfare
Bureau of Social Services
Statehouse Mail
Boise, Idaho 83720
(208) 334-4096

Department of Children and Family Services
One North Old State Capitol Plaza
Springfield, Illinois 62706
(217) 785-2598

Department of Public Welfare
Child Welfare and Social Services Division
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Indianapolis, Indiana 46225
(317) 232-4420

Department of Social Services
Bureau of Children's Services
Hoover Building - 5th Floor
Des Moines, Iowa 50319
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Department of Health and Environment
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Topeka, Kansas 66620
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Department of Health and Human Resources
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Department of Human Services
Licensing Unit (Day Care)
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Augusta, Maine 04333
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Department of Health and Mental Hygiene
Division of Child Day Care Center Licensing
201 West Preston Street
Baltimore, Maryland 21201
(301) 383-4009

Office for Children
Day Care Licensing
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Boston, Massachusetts 02114
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Department of Social Services
Division of Child Day Care Licensing
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Department of Public Welfare
Division of Licensing (Day Care)
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Department of Health
Department of Social Services
Division of Child Care
P.O. Box 1700
Jackson, Mississippi 39205
(601) 982-6505

Department of Social Services
Division of Family Services
Day Care Licensing Unit
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Jefferson City, Missouri 65103
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Department of Social and
Rehabilitation Services
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Department of Public Welfare
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Lincoln, Nebraska 68509
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Department of Human Resources
Youth Services Division
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(702) 885-5911

Department of Health and Welfare
Office of Social Services - Division of Welfare
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Department of Human Services
Division of Youth and Family Services
Bureau of Licensing
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Department of Human Services
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Department of Public Welfare
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Department of Human Services
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Department of Human Resources
Children's Services Division - Day Care Unit
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Department of Public Welfare
Day Care Licensing
1514 North Second Street
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17102
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Department for Children and Their Families
Division of Community Services
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Department of Social Services
Division of Child Development
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Department of Social Services
Office of Children, Youth and
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Department of Human Services
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Rehabilitation Services
Division of Licensing and Regulations
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Department of Health and Social Services
Division of Public Assistance and
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Regulatory Affairs
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APPENDIX D

I
Model Legislation: School-Age Child Care Enabling Statute

Sec. 1 *Purpose of Article*

In recognition of the growing number of children who have no adult supervision at certain periods when school is not in session, the purpose of this article is to encourage and assure maximum use of the public schools in the establishment and operation of and provision for school-age child care programs. To this end, it is declared to be the policy of this State that each local board of education shall be encouraged to assess its local needs for school-age child care and meet such need as provided for in this article.

Sec. 2 *Authority and Responsibilities of State Board of Education and Local School Boards of Education*

Local school boards[1] shall have the power to establish and operate, contract for and/or make provision for programs and (necessary) auxiliary services[2] which provide before- and after-school and vacation instruction and care for children residing in the district. The local boards shall adopt rules and regulations (terms and conditions) governing these programs, including an application and contracting procedure by which qualified groups may apply to operate them, as it deems best. Provided, that programs operated by or contracted for by local boards shall meet the minimum standards for such programs as are established by the State Board of Education and where applicable any local and state day care regulatory standards. Except as otherwise provided by state or federal law, when the school itself operates the program, school boards may fix reasonable charges for the instruction and care of children attending these programs. When nonpublic school entities operate the program, these entities shall have the authority to set fees. The board may, if necessary, supplement the funds established from the charges fixed by public school and nonpublic school-operated programs by accepting monies from any community, state or federal agency and by making an appropriation from the general school fund of the school district. Any fees collected by, or monies granted to, these programs shall be used exclusively for the support of such programs. (Model legislation drafted by the Child Care Law Center, San Francisco, CA)

[1] Known also as school committees, boards of directors, boards of trustees, etc.

[2] These could include transportation, etc.

II
S. 1531

The following excerpts from the *Congressional Record* clarify Senate Bill 1531, which "encourage[s] the use of public school facilities before and after school hours for the care of school-age children and for other purposes".

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "School Facilities Child Care Act."[1]

Statement of Findings and Purpose

Sec. 2. The Congress finds that—

(1) the need for day care for the young school-age child before school, after school, during school holidays, and during school vacations when parents must work, is a national problem, affecting more and more families every year;
(2) approximately 6 million children, between the ages of 6 and 13 take care of themselves when they return home from school;
(3) unsupervised children run physical and psychological risks, including accidents and feelings of loneliness and fear;
(4) research studies have indicated increased likelihood of alcohol and drug abuse and delinquent behavior among unsupervised "latchkey" children;
(5) the number of existing child care programs designed to meet the needs of young schoolchildren for before and after school supervision are scarce, frequently filled to capacity and often unable to subsidize care for children from families with limited financial resources;
(6) the Federal Government has a role in the promotion of quality and adequate child care services which contribute to the well-being of children and families; and
(7) the use of the public school as the site for before and after school care offers effective utilization of existing resources.
(b) Recognizing that the parent is the primary influence in the life of the child and that the parent must have ultimate decisionmaking authority on issues relating to the welfare and care of the child, it is the purpose of this Act—
(1) to encourage the development of partnerships among parents, public elementary and secondary school educators and child care providers designed to serve the interests of school-age children in need of before and after school care;
(2) to promote the availability of child care services to school-age children in need of services;
(3) to provide financial assistance to public agencies and private nonprofit organizations utilizing public school facilities for before and after child care services;
(4) to provide assistance to families whose financial resources are insufficient to pay the full cost of services for before and after school care; and
(5) to encourage State and local educational agencies and community organizations to assess the need for school-age child care services and to promote public awareness of the need to provide adult supervision of school-age children and the availability of programs to provide such services.

[1] Excerpts from *Congressional Record*, 98th Congress, First Session, vol. 129, no. 90. Washington, D.C., June 23, 1983. "School Facilities Child Care Act" (S. 1531).

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RESOURCES

School-Age Child Care Project, Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, Wellesley, MA 02181, (617) 431-1453

The project provides technical assistance, information and referral, and distributes a wide range of written materials including: samples of school district policies, needs assessments, supply inventory instruments; federal and state legislation; school-age child care staff training projects, films and videotapes, and other materials related to the start-up and operation of school-age child care programs.

The Center for Early Adolescence, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Suite 223, Carr Mill Mall, Carrboro, NC 27510, (919) 966-1148

The center conducts research and serves as a clearinghouse for information on young adolescents, ages ten to fifteen, and is dedicated to increasing the effectiveness of agencies and professionals who work with the age group. Resources include: a newsletter, publications, consultants, and the development and delivery of workshops.

Child Care Law Project, 625 Market Street, Suite 815, San Francisco, CA 94105, (415) 495-5498

The center makes available educational materials on legal issues in child care for child care center directors and family day care providers. Topics include liability, insurance, contracts, nonprofit incorporation, tax exempt status, child abuse, employer supported child care, and legal issues for public schools in implementing school-age child care programs.

American Association of School Administrators (AASA)
1801 North Moore Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-0700

American Association of University Women
2401 Virginia Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037
(202) 785-7700

Association of Junior Leagues
825 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022
(212) 355-4380

Boys' Clubs of America
771 First Avenue
New York, NY 10017
(212) 557-7755

Boy Scouts of America
1325 Walnut Hill Lane
Irving, TX 75062
(214) 659-2000

Camp Fire, Inc.
4601 Madison Avenue
Kansas City, MO 64112
(816) 756-1950

Child Care Action Campaign
P.O. Box 313
New York, NY 10185
(212) 354-5669 or 354-1225

Child Care Support Center
1182 West Peachtree Street, N.E., Suite 209
Atlanta, GA 30309
(404) 885-1578

Child Welfare League of America, Inc.
67 Irving Place
New York, NY 10003
(212) 254-7410

Children's Foundation
1420 New York Avenue, N.W., Suite 800
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 347-3300 (food program info)

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22090
(703) 620-3660

Children's Defense Fund
122 C Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20001
(1-800-424-9602)

Community Coordinated Child Care for Central Florida, Inc. (4-C)
816 Broadway
Orlando, FL 32803
(305) 425-0509

Corporate Child Development Fund for Texas
510 South Congress, Suite 122
Austin, TX 78704
(512) 478-9741

Early Adolescent Helper Project
Center for Advanced Study in Education
CUNY Graduate Center
33 West 42nd Street
New York, NY 10036
(212) 719-9066

Fairfax County Office for Children
10396 Democracy Lane
Fairfax, VA 22030
(703) 691-3175

Girls' Clubs of America
205 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10016
(212) 689-3700

Girl Scouts of the USA
830 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022
(212) 940-7500

The Institute for School-Age Child Care
Community College of Baltimore—Harbor Campus
Lombard Street at Market Place
Baltimore, MD 21202
(301) 396-1852

League of Women Voters
1730 M Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 296-1770

National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)
1834 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 232-8777

National Association of Elementary School Principals (NESPA)
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-6100

National Black Child Development Institute
1463 Rhode Island Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 387-1281

National Committee for the Prevention of Child Abuse
332 South Michigan Avenue, Suite 1250
Chicago, IL 60604
(312) 663-3520

National Council of the Churches of Christ
Child Day Care Project
475 Riverside Drive, Room 560
New York, NY 10027
(212) 870-2664

National Council of La Raza
20 F Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 628-9600

National Employer Supported Child Care Project
Child Care Information Service
363 East Villa Street
Pasadena, CA 91101
(213) 796-4341

National PTA
700 North Rush Street
Chicago, IL 60611-2571
(312) 787-0977

National School Boards Association (NSBA)
1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 337-7666

North Carolina Office of Policy and Planning
Department of Administration
116 West Jones Street
Raleigh, NC 27603
(919) 733-4131

Texas Institute for Families
11311 Richmond Avenue, Suite LIO7
Houston, TX 77082
(713) 497-8719

U.S. Conference of Mayors
1620 Eye Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20006
(202) 293-7330

Work and Family Information Center
The Conference Board
845 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022
(212) 759-0900

YMCA of the USA
101 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, IL 60606
(312) 269-0500

YWCA of the USA
135 West 50th Street
New York, NY 10020
(212) 621-5227